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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

MAY, 1846.

ART. I.—THE INFLUENCE OF CLIMATE ON LONGEVITY:

WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO LIFE INSURANCE.

PART II.

[*THE availableness of tables of population, as the basis of calculations for life insurance, is an interesting and important inquiry. As an aid to such inquiry, we give the following Tables of Mortality, some of which form the basis of the calculations of the British Life Insurance offices.]

Ago.	Living.	Living.	Living.	Living.	MALE. Living.	FEMALE. Living.	MALE. Living.	FEMALE. Living.
0	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	10,000	10,000
10	820	487	646	2,884	896	903	6,184	6,701
20	814	440	609	2,705	837	848	5,765	6,302
30	734	415	564	2,501	732	777	5,127	5,695
40	657	312	507	2,236	644	700	4,516	5,045
50	581	245	439	1,937	561	623	3,675	4,302
60	463	174	364	1,524	440	539	2,778	3,566
70	310	105	240	1,028	288	412	1,740	2,498
80	118	40	95	480	125	210	715	617
90	11	3	14	65	11	52	205	283

NOTE—In column 2, the calculations are from Desparcieux; 3, Northampton, Dr. Price; 4, Carlisle, Mr. Millne; 5, Equitable Experience, Mr. Davies; 6, 7, Mr. Finlayson's tables; 8, 9, Chester table.

For many years, the Northampton tables, given by Dr. Price, (in his "Observations on Reversionary Payments," published in 1771,) were the only tables in use in Great Britain. The Albion, Atlas, London Life, and other companies, made them the basis of their calculations.

Of late years, the Chester and Carlisle tables are more generally used by the British and American Life Insurance Companies. Among the latter, the "New England Mutual Life," judging from the premium table, must use a basis calculated from the probabilities of life in New England, the premiums being lower in the early, and higher in the more advanced periods of life, than in the British tables. Most of the other American Life companies appear to have charged premium in the following manner.

* The portion of this article within the brackets, has been added to the original essay whilst in course of publication in this Magazine.

The average of male and female probability of life being taken, (the rates of premium are adopted, on an estimate of 3 per cent on investments,) according to the Chester tables, a slight advance is charged on the early, and a gradually increasing advance on the later periods of life.

Age.	CHESTER TABLES AT 3 PER CENT.		AMERICAN TABLES. Ann. premium for life.
	Ann. premium for life. Males.	Ann. premium for life. Females.	
14,.....	\$1,56	\$1,38	\$1,53
20,.....	1,81	1,60	1,77
50,.....	4,18	3,50	4,60

But, since all American funds may be invested at least at 5 per cent instead of 3 per cent, the American companies secure to themselves a profit on life premiums, varying from 20 per cent for the age of 14, to 11 per cent at the the age of 50 years. And these profits will accrue, if the probabilities of life are as great in the United States *now*, as they were in Chester from 1700 to 1774, the period embraced in the observations on which the Chester tables are calculated. Is this the case?

With a view to determine, by approximation, whether it is or not, the following view is, with deference, offered.

By the "Table of the Population of Belgium," given in the latter part of this article, it will be seen that the table of mortality (living,) bears a certain ratio to the table of population. The same ratio exists between the tables of mortality and population in France.* This ratio may be assumed as a constant fact.

From this fact we draw the plain inference, that a table of mortality may be calculated from a table of population. Let m be the number sought, at a given age, in the table of mortality; let P be the number, in the known table of population, at the same age; m must be some product of P . Let the multiplier be x , which may be greater or less than unity, or unity itself. Then, $m = Px$.

Obtaining the successive values of x from the Belgian and French tables, I have constructed the following tables of mortality:—

Age.	NEW HAMPSHIRE.		Difference per cent.
	1830. Males. Living.	1840. Males. Living.	
5,.....	8,653	8,806	1.765
10,.....	7,407	7,896	6.601
15,.....	6,214	6,463	4.001
20,.....	5,115	5,345	4.496
30,.....	3,582	3,952	10.32
40,.....	2,436	2,723	11.51
50,.....	1,486	1,736	16.82
60,.....	848	922	8.726
70,†.....	379	442	16.62

By comparing the above with the Chester tables, it appears that the 6,463 in New Hampshire, (1840,) at 15 years, produces only 1,736 at 50 years, whilst the Chester table would give 3,945 at 50, for 6,463 at 15 years. Hence, between 15 and 50 years, (among males,) the probabilities are one-half less in New Hampshire than in Chester. And, as the state selected is a favorable case, above the average of the states, it follows that the probabilities of life are much lower in the United States than is assumed as the basis of the American premium tables.

* Quetelet et Smits Recherch. sur la Reproduct., etc., p. 43.

† The values for the intervening ages between 5 and 10, &c., can be obtained by the method of interpolation.

This great disproportion in the risks, is constantly lessening by the fact observed by Dr. Spare, "that the average age of our population has, during the last 40 years, *been increasing*."*

Some idea of the ratio of this increasing longevity, may be had from the column marked "Difference per cent," where it appears, that for an increase of 1.764 per cent at 5 years, there is an increase of 16.82 per cent at 50 years; and this, in the ten years between 1830 and 1840. If continued, this increment would place New Hampshire on a par with the Chester tables, in 25 years.

The following are the values of x , obtained by the process above indicated; being taken from the average of males and females, it must be somewhat too high for males, and too low for females. By multiplying the corresponding ages in the census table, the table of mortality will be obtained, approximately.

Age.		Age.	
5 years, $x=1.0156$		40 years. $x=1.1936$	
10 " $x=1.0394$		50 " $x=1.2158$	
15 " $x=1.0514$		60 " $x=1.2674$	
20 " $x=1.0704$		70 " $x=1.3196$	
30 " $x=1.1329$			

We proceed to examine the census of the United States. The census of 1830 is selected.

The males and females are given in separate tables, because they make perceptible the ratio of the sexes at the different epochs of life.

The tables of Tucker have been taken; at the expense of considerable toil, I have reduced them to a basis of ten millions, (10,000,000) for each state and territory.

TABLE C.—CENSUS OF 1830, REDUCED TO A BASIS OF 10,000,000.

Free White Males.

Years.	Maine.	N. Hamp.	Vermont.	Massachusetts.	R. Island.	Connecticut.
Below 5,†
Above 5,	8,306,240	8,520,139	8,448,902	8,653,304	8,505,947	8,951,117
10,	6,869,438	7,187,600	7,068,572	7,398,075	7,230,061	7,426,525
15,	5,598,240	5,911,777	5,810,543	6,221,196	6,040,111	6,176,904
20,	4,484,049	4,778,770	4,682,605	5,105,071	4,861,170	5,022,404
30,	2,740,782	3,162,451	2,952,091	3,119,339	3,003,526	3,192,989
40,	1,659,080	2,041,173	1,824,871	1,916,812	1,819,720	2,031,459
50,	933,799	1,219,670	1,080,767	1,113,614	1,045,398	1,220,221
60,	474,122	669,255	577,192	604,467	570,074	671,746
70,	177,218	283,370	205,288	254,709	251,872	287,223
80,	45,762	70,861	47,819	65,602	63,684	66,922
90,	4,735	6,788	3,645	5,902	6,170	6,014
100,	99	305	214	33	0	349

* Dr. Spare shows that Massachusetts and Rhode Island give exceptions to this law. "These being long settled states, are about reaching their maximum proportion of population in the more advanced periods of life." If this reason were good, it should have been stated that they had reached their maximum in 1830, and advanced towards a minimum in 1840. I would hazard the opinion, that none of the states have yet reached their maximum of longevity, because none have reached the maximum of comforts which American institutions are destined to dispense. The falling off in the proportion of longevity (above 60,) in the states named, as well as in others of the "Old Thirteen," arises, undoubtedly, from the diminished number of births in those states, during the revolutionary war. This is shown in the sudden decrement in the ratio of increase of longevity in the above table of New Hampshire. Thus, war, as well as pestilence and famine, leaves its mark, which may be read from the statistics of a country.

† The number below 5 is obtained by subtracting those above 5 from 10,000,000.

The Influence of Climate on Longevity :

TABLE C.—FREE WHITE MALES—Continued.

Years.	New York.	New Jersey.	Pennsylvania.	Delaware.	Maryland.	Dis. of Col.
Below 5,
Above 5,	8,338,272	8,353,940	8,232,597	8,356,303	8,391,038	8,291,790
10,	6,897,176	6,963,839	6,785,859	6,934,714	7,067,235	7,230,518
15,	5,651,720	5,672,030	5,548,172	5,575,501	5,856,745	5,976,536
20,	4,582,762	4,549,726	4,450,247	4,469,439	4,786,145	4,973,932
30,	2,725,485	2,779,031	2,626,929	2,562,716	2,790,220	2,804,250
40,	1,535,624	1,645,358	1,498,023	1,451,084	1,553,924	1,472,739
50,	812,358	925,227	798,125	745,132	801,947	689,149
60,	386,692	462,810	376,984	299,225	356,714	254,398
70,	135,378	170,488	135,514	88,070	121,520	74,780
80,	29,966	75,753	30,714	18,031	28,180	19,795
90,	3,048	2,590	4,055	3,120	4,073	1,466
100,	367	65	794	0	475	733

TABLE C.—FREE WHITE MALES—Continued.

Years.	Virginia.	N. Carolina.	S. Carolina.	Georgia.	Alabama.	Mississippi.
Below 5,
Above 5,	8,296,975	8,020,184	8,076,617	7,584,800	7,739,866	7,940,705
10,	6,618,754	6,494,152	6,527,992	6,035,924	6,204,335	6,492,449
15,	5,376,695	5,201,356	5,269,340	5,088,747	5,002,129	5,298,015
20,	4,312,828	4,124,215	4,399,209	4,097,887	4,056,995	4,357,750
30,	2,562,962	2,451,225	2,495,773	2,345,242	2,327,370	2,476,594
40,	1,512,359	1,475,166	1,425,277	1,291,116	1,202,336	1,272,229
50,	840,136	839,320	786,968	668,557	604,560	643,264
60,	401,379	393,038	354,786	298,040	248,113	228,548
70,	143,530	140,397	121,684	96,801	75,396	64,222
80,	37,895	34,547	28,965	23,694	16,765	15,080
90,	6,037	7,030	6,130	4,766	2,982	286
100,	747	118	1,072	652	297	0

TABLE C.—FREE WHITE MALES—Continued.

Years.	Louisiana.	Tennessee.	Kentucky.	Ohio.	Indiana.	Illinois.
Below 5,
Above 5,	8,598,211	7,832,740	7,974,567	7,990,430	7,741,741	7,704,776
10,	7,119,667	6,185,528	6,435,216	6,433,135	6,109,207	6,150,663
15,	6,091,532	4,872,745	5,155,416	5,136,531	4,808,854	4,928,086
20,	5,223,488	3,800,913	4,065,928	4,071,331	3,804,317	3,980,999
30,	3,126,877	2,176,361	2,350,431	2,376,485	2,203,063	2,189,174
40,	1,569,624	1,263,269	1,366,130	1,348,339	1,184,864	1,113,602
50,	706,954	713,817	768,251	881,012	598,404	549,609
60,	265,383	307,053	362,560	323,326	257,166	201,582
70,	85,788	105,490	128,453	98,686	77,417	58,995
80,	22,248	28,872	31,673	22,972	17,178	12,189
90,	6,614	4,981	5,503	3,481	3,526	1,218
100,	1,803	1,163	1,048	240	739	487

TABLE C.—FREE WHITE MALES—Continued.

Years.	Missouri.	Michigan.	Arkansas.	Florida.
Below 5,
Above 5,	7,796,418	8,337,003	7,930,091	8,117,299
10,	6,229,647	7,054,967	6,548,317	6,814,269
15,	5,141,620	6,007,709	5,433,875	5,822,090
20,	4,094,460	5,162,401	4,562,048	5,050,829
30,	2,280,131	2,743,385	2,618,915	2,928,632
40,	1,126,708	1,235,131	1,371,485	1,427,108
50,	533,550	556,718	771,074	684,261
60,	217,752	194,378	199,451	258,064
70,	66,929	49,008	56,203	68,426
80,	12,377	13,766	8,910	13,754
90,	2,605	2,753	685	2,942
100,	325	550	0	977

TABLE C.—FREE WHITE FEMALES.

Years.	Maine.	N. Hamp.	Vermont.	Massachusetts.	R. Island.	Connecticut.
Below 5,
Above 5,	8,359,476	8,647,320	8,585,599	8,720,139	8,628,825	8,750,951
10,	6,957,983	7,432,772	7,356,231	7,602,185	7,460,640	7,597,335
15,	5,737,720	6,303,985	6,263,023	6,519,777	6,381,514	6,468,296
20,	4,608,093	5,226,174	5,452,926	5,405,054	5,223,688	5,378,181
30,	2,805,626	3,439,269	3,461,344	3,289,561	3,318,144	3,566,569
40,	1,678,476	2,225,453	2,267,667	2,209,330	2,125,091	2,341,994
50,	960,526	1,373,314	1,393,912	1,344,458	1,293,079	1,439,595
60,	488,301	746,180	783,207	746,596	707,745	808,887
70,	189,365	318,181	340,183	325,664	306,130	351,332
80,	53,267	91,999	91,671	95,465	86,992	94,676
90,	7,138	13,090	10,504	11,373	9,113	10,853
100,	151	436	198	129	0	204

TABLE C.—FREE WHITE FEMALES—Continued.

Years.	New York.	New Jersey.	Pennsylvania.	Delaware.	Maryland.	Virginia.
Below 5,
Above 5,	8,342,663	8,381,816	8,262,372	8,367,260	8,448,219	8,198,639
10,	6,890,608	6,994,030	6,822,937	6,959,260	7,146,930	6,755,279
15,	5,634,853	5,758,282	5,579,169	5,678,951	5,942,200	5,545,661
20,	4,486,202	4,621,993	4,399,112	4,490,863	4,709,747	4,376,502
30,	2,644,507	2,874,064	2,599,357	2,566,362	2,791,918	2,585,372
40,	1,503,358	1,748,809	1,519,387	1,450,131	1,635,344	1,583,482
50,	802,622	1,003,383	828,713	731,390	880,998	847,861
60,	384,238	508,868	395,801	240,870	395,544	401,846
70,	137,788	190,317	143,959	114,466	142,727	148,987
80,	32,663	44,075	33,920	22,120	35,490	37,934
90,	3,501	4,400	3,975	2,458	5,427	6,235
100,	185	135	326	351	975	808

TABLE C.—FREE WHITE FEMALES—Continued.

Years.	N. Carolina.	S. Carolina.	Georgia.	Alabama.	Mississippi.	Louisiana.
Below 5,
Above 5,	8,154,589	8,136,809	7,839,664	7,617,238	7,710,341	8,025,805
10,	6,706,070	6,645,409	6,263,607	5,963,600	6,090,336	6,459,123
15,	5,489,878	5,441,642	5,015,966	4,725,331	4,791,984	5,158,188
20,	4,332,797	4,326,449	3,869,637	3,698,531	3,650,293	3,966,080
30,	2,574,739	2,508,643	2,194,400	1,999,775	2,014,379	2,213,107
40,	1,538,843	1,452,823	1,220,839	1,045,106	1,047,852	1,149,074
50,	835,014	787,180	633,650	520,879	503,908	564,413
60,	397,422	358,331	279,020	215,944	196,433	246,266
70,	182,405	128,065	93,378	68,669	60,056	79,220
80,	39,484	35,219	24,598	20,433	13,450	23,032
90,	7,936	7,625	5,924	4,353	2,815	4,555
100,	1,266	1,336	1,393	1,116	625	253

TABLE C.—FREE WHITE MALES—Continued.

Years.	Tennessee.	Kentucky.	Ohio.	Indiana.	Illinois.	Missouri.
Below 5,
Above 5,	7,874,144	7,972,959	7,996,036	7,706,410	7,612,520	7,823,720
10,	5,999,859	6,396,665	6,393,220	6,049,951	5,968,896	5,946,809
15,	4,938,226	5,111,755	5,083,024	4,749,547	4,701,959	4,673,160
20,	3,765,532	3,933,350	3,810,108	3,640,951	3,599,377	3,594,311
30,	2,116,649	2,259,771	2,215,107	2,007,935	1,892,756	1,947,932
40,	1,212,969	1,323,630	1,236,731	1,047,696	955,212	989,136
50,	627,379	705,904	622,668	495,653	441,548	480,051
60,	271,527	327,808	268,266	201,588	161,211	199,288
70,	97,280	115,255	83,503	62,445	49,994	55,815
80,	26,094	27,374	18,524	12,966	12,602	13,298
90,	5,295	4,429	2,116	1,773	2,019	2,060
100,	1,073	558	133	244	136	374

TABLE C.—FREE WHITE FEMALES—Continued.

Years.	Michigan.	Arkansas.	Florida.
Below 5,.....
Above 5,.....	7,919,508	7,580,638	7,782,550
10,.....	6,354,575	5,926,763	6,247,394
15,.....	5,074,405	4,625,107	5,043,563
20,.....	3,982,533	3,555,605	3,911,009
30,.....	2,053,909	1,801,265	2,135,231
40,.....	991,646	853,511	1,094,109
50,.....	440,390	393,199	500,675
60,.....	144,267	130,775	197,570
70,.....	37,965	36,617	73,628
80,.....	11,388	10,462	18,407
90,.....	3,796	2,615	6,135
100,.....	0	0	0*

The most striking fact, in the above table, is, that it embraces a wider difference in the longevity of the different states, than is found in table B, which we arranged from Quetelet. The widest difference in that table, is between Belgium, in which there are 350 above 70 years, and the United States, in which there are only 145.2 above 70.

Difference=104.8.

In table C, in the state of Connecticut, among the females, we have 351.332† above 70 years ; in Georgia, among the same sex, there are only 93.378 above 70.

Difference=257.954 ! More than twice the widest range embraced in the table of Quetelet !

How M. Adolphe Quetelet would stare to find his own Belgians out-lived by the pumpkin-phagi of Connecticut ! Especially, since he has carefully accounted for the short-livedness of the population of the United States "as owing to the rapid increase of the population, * * the greater number of individuals proceeding from this great development of fecundity, being still little advanced in the career of life." (On Man, p. 57.) Little advanced, forsooth ! Fine young maids of seventy ! Their budding beauties freshly germinating, and contributing to a remarkably "great development of fecundity !"

Another remarkable fact developed in table C, is, that as a general rule, the age of 5 years—in other words, the proportion above to the proportion under 5 years—generally determines the longevity of each state and territory. The exceptions are those anomalies produced by emigration. In order that this fact may be more readily determined, the *proportion under 5 years* is not stated. It is easily obtained by deducting the number set against "above 5 years," from 10,000,000.

Excepting Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, Michigan, Arkansas, and Florida, it will be seen that the relative distribution of the sexes gives the relative preponderance for the females, (the period of fecundity excepted, always,) which Quetelet has demonstrated to be the normal or natural distribution, of the relative longevity of the sexes. The states excepted, are anomalous from obvious causes ; they are newly settled, pioneer states.

Quetelet, for other reasons, has noted the importance of the 5th year of human existence. He says, "the age of 5 years is most remarkable, because the mortality which had been so very great until then, suddenly ar-

* The absence of centenarians in Florida, &c., &c., is a proof of the accidental, irregular distribution of population in these states ; which would, naturally, produce an excess of centenarians.

† On the basis of 10,000, instead of 10,000,000 : which is effected by simply changing the position of the decimal point.

rests itself, and becomes extremely small until the age of puberty. It is at the age of 5 years, that probability of living, or *probable life*, (*la vie probable*;) attains its maximum; that is to say, that man is able to count on the longest life."—(*Recherches sur la Reproduction, &c.*, p. 51.)

If this remark of the distinguished Belgian be true, "that 5 is the age when the longest probable life can be predicted," it follows, that the greater the number of persons who reach this age, the greater is the probable life—longevity—of the population which produces this "greater number of persons."

The following is a probable reason for this fact. Small-pox,* scarlatina, and measles, are fatal principally to children *under 5 years of age*. The superior strength of constitution, which enables a large proportion of children to resist, or survive these "pests," will also carry them to an advanced age. Or, on the other hand—with deference be it written by a disciple of Hippocrates—the more general vaccination which protects a larger number of children from one of the pests, argues the presence of such medical assistance as will materially prolong the life of the people of whom those children are a part.

But, to return to table B; let us select the states of *New Hampshire* and *Georgia*, in order that we may estimate the influence of the climate on the longevity of each state.

In regard to the *climate* of New Hampshire, Dr. Forry states that "with the exception of the southeastern angle of the state, the surface is hilly or mountainous, the elevations rising in height as they recede from the sea, until they finally swell into the lofty grandeur of the White Mountains. The great central knot consists of rocky pinnacles, shooting up to the altitude of from 5,000, to upwards of 6,000 feet. On these summits, the ascent to which discovers several striking changes in vegetation, as already described, * * snow lies during ten months in the year. A large part of the state is yet covered with native forests, which are still haunted, in some places, by the larger kind of wild animals. Of the population, nearly four-fifths live in the southern portion of the state, much of the northern being too rugged and sterile to be susceptible of cultivation. * * * Reference has already been made to the severity of the winters, which are long and rigorous, the prevailing winds being from the northwest. Whilst in winter, the mercury sinks to 15° or 20°, and sometimes 30° and 40° below zero.† Towards the end of October, ice begins to form; and snow generally lies till late in April. Cattle are housed from about the first of November till the middle of May."—(*Climate of the United States, &c.*, p. 122.) In regard to the temperature of New Hampshire, we are obliged to adopt the results obtained at Fort Constitution, near Portsmouth, in which, doubtless, the annual temperature is some degrees too high for the mean of the state, although not much too high for the portion in which the great bulk of the population reside.

The climate of *Georgia* is thus described by Forry: "Georgia is divided into three well-defined belts, extending across the state from east to west. The Atlantic Plain, the northern boundary of which passes near Augusta, Milledgeville, Macon and Columbus, exhibits the usual features; whilst a zone of sand-hills forms a higher terrace, reaching to the base of

* "As much as five-sixths of the mortality (of small-pox) occurs before the age of 5 years."—(Forry, Appendix to Boylston Prize Essay on Vaccination.)

† The lowest temperature recorded at Stockholm, Sweden, is 26° C, or 16° 42 F, below zero.—(Kaemtz, p. 163.)

the mountains, and constituting the Atlantic Slope. Extending thence to the sources of the rivers, is the hilly region, which, blessed with a mild climate and productive soil, contrasts strongly with the hot, sultry, and malarial region below. Cotton and rice are the great agricultural staples. Some tobacco is cultivated in the middle and northern, and some sugar in the southern parts."—(On Climate of the United States, p. 168.)

"The great Atlantic Plain * * is composed of a series of horizontal deposits of sand, clay, and some limestone, deeply furrowed by the channels of its water-courses, and containing some basins having the character of swamps. The greater part of the plain is covered with extensive pine forests, not, however, without many patches of good land."—(Id., p. 163-4.)

Augusta Arsenal, the locality we have selected for the average mean annual temperature of Georgia, is situated about the middle of the state, near the transition of climates, and about 130 miles from the ocean.

PLACE.	LATITUDE.	TEMPERATURE.				
		Annual.	Spring.	Summer.	Autumn.	Winter.
New Hampshire,...	43° 40'	47°21	45°22	65°72	49°95	28°39
Georgia,.....	33° 28'	66°01	65°89	81°06	65°49	51°43
Difference,.....	9° 36'	18°90	20°67	15°34	15°54	23°04
Place.		Hottest month.		Coldest month.		Range.
New Hampshire,.....		67°89 July,		24°50 January,		43°39
Georgia,.....		82°17 "		48°63 "		39°54
Difference,.....		14°28		24°13		10°85

The difference in the mean annual temperature is 18°90; and this difference is chiefly caused by the long duration of the winter in New Hampshire; this season (winter,) is 23° 04 colder than the winter of Georgia.

Let us now compare the longevity of these states, placing the decimal point so as to make the basis that of 10,000.

In New Hampshire, above 70 years, Males,.....	283.370	
" " " " Females,.....	318.181	
	2)601.551	
Mean,.....		300.775
In Georgia, above 70 years, Males,.....	96.801	
" " " " Females,.....	93.378	
	2)190.179	
Mean,.....		95.089,5
Difference between longevity of New Hampshire and Georgia,.....		204.685,5

The population of New Hampshire enjoy a longevity twice and a half greater than the population of Georgia.

It is interesting to compare the longevity and climate of New Hampshire with those of Sweden. The annual temperature of Sweden is about 40°; that is, 7° 21 minutes *colder* than the temperature of New Hampshire; the prevalent institutions of Sweden are nearly on a par, in their relation to vital statistics, with the institutions of New Hampshire. They agree in oppressing the Roman Catholics!! Sweden has cold winds and rain from the east; New Hampshire enjoys the northwest wind in all its glory. The longevity of Sweden is 282; the longevity of New Hampshire, 300. Difference in favor of New Hampshire, 18 persons in 10,000. That is, the milder climate has the greater longevity.*

Let us compare *Connecticut* with *New Hampshire*. "*Connecticut* is

* A similar view is obtained by comparing Belgium with New Hampshire.

mostly hilly or undulating, but never mountainous; ** on all the rivers, however, particularly the Connecticut and Housatonic, there are rich alluvial tracts."—(Forry.)

Place.	Latitude.	Annual.	Spring.	Summer.	Autumn.	Winter.
New Hampshire,.....	43° 04'	47°21	45°22	65°72	49°95	28°39
Conn., (Fort Trumbull),...	41° 22'	55°00	51°00	71°89	57°61	39°33
Difference,.....	1° 42'	7°79	5°78	6°17	7°66	10°94

As in the other places compared, the principal difference in temperature occurs in the winter. The temperature of the coldest month (January,) in New Hampshire, is 24°50; of the coldest month in Connecticut, (January,) 34°50; difference, 10°. Hottest month in New Hampshire, (July,) 67°89; hottest month in Connecticut, (July,) 73°87; difference, 5°96.

There are, above 70, in Connecticut; mean of males and females,.....	319.277
" " " " New Hampshire, " " " "	300.775

Difference between longevity of New Hampshire and Connecticut,..... 18.502

The milder climate of Connecticut has a longevity as much greater than that of the colder climate of New Hampshire, as the climate of New Hampshire has a longevity greater than that of Sweden!

The table (C) shows the proportion of females in Connecticut above 70 years, to be 351 in 10,000, or 351,332 in 10,000,000. If we take into account the roving habits of the males of Connecticut, and the ease with which they pitch their tents for life, in any spot which yields a profitable bargain, it is probable that we may reckon the mean longevity of males and females higher than 319 in 10,000.

The apparently numerous proportion of both sexes in this state, (Connecticut,) between 5 and 15 years, as shown in table C, is accounted for by the great number of children from other states, who attend school in this; and hence, another reason for the propriety of estimating the longevity of this state higher than the tabular numbers.

If we compare Connecticut with Georgia, the difference of annual temperature is 11°1; of longevity, 224 in 10,000, or 224,188 in 10,000,000.

A similar difference in longevity, accompanying difference in climate, occurs, if we compare all the New England, with all the Southern States (the old states.)

States.	Mean annual temperature.*	Mean of males and females above 70 years.
Maine,.....	183.291
New Hampshire,.....	300.775
Vermont,.....	272.735
Massachusetts,.....	49°71	290.865
Connecticut,.....	319.277
Rhode Island,.....	279.001
Mean of New England,.....	274.624
States.	Mean annual temperature.	Mean above 70 years.
Virginia,.....	146.258,5
North Carolina,.....	161.392
South Carolina,.....	66°07	124.874,5
Georgia,.....	95.089,5
Florida,†.....	52.520,5
Mean of Southern States,.....	116.027

* The temperature given, is the mean of as many localities (in the different states,) as could be procured from authentic records.

† Although recently annexed to the United States, Florida contains some of the most ancient of European settlements in the New World.

The difference in temperature between the New England and Southern states, is $17^{\circ}64$; there are other climatic differences, too well known to be here specified. In speaking of the climate of Florida, Forry says, "the want of hygrometrical observations to indicate the actual or comparative humidity of the atmosphere, is to be regretted. That the air is much more humid than in our more northern regions, is sufficiently cognizable to the senses. The dews, even in the winter, are generally very heavy. To guard against the oxidation of metals, as, for example, surgical instruments, is a matter of extreme difficulty. During summer, books become covered with mould, and keys rust in one's pocket."—(On Climate, &c., p. 62.) "As the rains, however, generally fall at a particular season, the atmosphere in winter is comparatively dry and serene. * * At Fort King, the annual number of fair days is 309."—(Id.)

"In countries and seasons in which solar action is most intense, electrical phenomena are most frequent and energetic ; and whilst atmospheric moisture favors the passage of electricity from the earth to the clouds, the opposite condition causes its accumulation in objects on its surface. Consequently, in the excessive climates of the northern division, thunder and lightning are of rare occurrence, and terrestrial objects are charged with an unusual portion of electricity ; whereas, in the warm and moist atmosphere of the alluvial zone which skirts our southern coast, opposite phenomena are witnessed."—(Id., p. 63.)

So much for the comparative climates :

The longevity of the New England States,.....	274.624
" " " Southern "	116.027
Difference,.....	159.597

The climate of New England is more favorable to longevity than the climate of the old Southern states, in the vast disproportion of 274 to 116, or $5\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 !

Results so constant, have some claim to be considered as a fixed law. And we think that sufficient evidence has been adduced, to make it extremely probable that a climate whose mean annual temperature ranges between 45° and 55° , is more favorable to longevity than a climate 8° or 10° higher or lower in temperature.*

* The hygrometry of the atmosphere between 45° and 55° , becomes an interesting inquiry. The following is copied from Kaemtz ; the degrees are centigrade, and may be reduced to Fahr., by multiplying by 1.8 and adding 32° .

Tension of vapor of water in millimetres of mercury.

Degrees.	Millimetres.
6	6.90
7	7.38
8	7.89
9	8.41
12	10.24
14	11.62
15	12.38
19 ^a	15.86
22 ^b	29.94

^a About 66° Fahr.

Table of the weights of vapor of water which a cubic metre of air may contain at different temperatures.

Degrees.	Grammes.
6	8.25
7	8.79
8	9.30
9	9.86
12	11.83
14	13.33
15	14.17
19	17.75
22	20.91

^b $71^{\circ}60$ Fahr.

From these tables, it is evident that one constant difference—difference of the dew point—accompanies a difference of temperature. Air, at the temperature of 6° C., or $42^{\circ}8$ Fahr., can only contain one-half the quantity of vapor of water, which air at 66°

The great states, New York and Pennsylvania, are within the limits of temperature which have thus far been found accompanied with greatest longevity.

There are above 70 years, in New York,.....	139.736
“ “ “ “ “ Pennsylvania,.....	136.580

The mean in these states is only 19 in 10,000 above the average longevity of the Southern states ! This apparent anomaly is accounted for by two reasons : 1st. By reference to table B, it will be seen that the increase of these states has been three times as rapid as the increase of the Southern states, during the last fifty years ; this relatively rapid increase has produced a great diminution of the *proportion* of the longæved. 2d. New York and Pennsylvania have, in their metropolitan and other populous cities, a disturbing cause, which materially diminishes the longevity of the states themselves. This fact is proven by a comparison of the longevity of the city of New York, with the longevity of one of the interior counties of the same state, Courtlandt county, which has been taken at random. Both are from the census of 1840.

Above 70, in Courtlandt county,.....	193.818
“ “ City of New York,.....	82.669
Difference,.....	111.149

A difference of 111 in 10,000 ; nearly as great as the difference between the New England and the Southern states !

These states, therefore, do not form exceptions to the general law above stated. Not only do facts gathered from the states, fairly compared, confirm this law, but an investigation of the condition of the population in different sections of the same state, also adds strength to the law. This may be seen by a comparison of two counties with different climates, in the state of South Carolina, according to the census of 1840.

Above 70 years, in Pickens county, S. C.,.....	202.696
“ “ “ Beaufort “ “	69.025
Difference,.....	133.671

Pickens and Beaufort contain nearly the same number of inhabitants ; the former is 2° north of the latter. Pickens and Beaufort differ in climate only. Pickens county is situated on the hilly and undulating land which gently slopes from the foot of the Blue Ridge chain ; whilst Beaufort lies in the low, alluvial region, which the Savannah and Combaha rivers divide into large islets. The mean annual temperature at Beaufort cannot be less than that of Charleston harbor, 65°78, whilst Pickens county enjoys a temperature at least 10° lower—within the range of 45° and 55°. These two counties, in the same state, and under identical institutions, present a difference in longevity greater than that between New England and the Southern states !

Fahr., can hold in solution. It follows that the dew point must always be lower, and air must always contain less of the vapor of water at the temperature of 42° Fahr., than air at the temperature of 66° Fahr. Hence, if the atmosphere at temperature of 42°, were actually saturated, it could contain too little of the vapor of water to impede the oxygenation of air in the lungs ; whilst air at 66° or 72°, might contain enough of moisture for that effect. Whether the very small quantity of vapor of water, which air at a temperature below 42° can contain, allows the too rapid oxygenation of the blood, is an interesting and important question.

In muggy, moist weather, with a low temperature, the symptoms are those of diminished or feeble electricity, rather than of impeded breathing (oxygenizing of the blood.)

The colored population have not been thrown into a tabular form, because they are enumerated, in the census, under 10 and under 24 years, &c. &c. ; which does not give the proportions under 5, and above 70, the ages most important for determining the proportion of longevity. Yet there is evidence sufficient, in this imperfect enumeration, to make it highly probable that the longevity of the whole colored population is rather less than the longevity of the whole white population.

The whole colored population, free and enslaved, should be estimated together, irrespective of the division made in the census—because the great majority of those free in 1830 or 1840, were slaves twenty years before the former date ; and hence, no class of colored persons have enjoyed freedom, in the United States, for a sufficient length of time (at least 100 years,) to yield statistical data based upon the fact of their freedom. Hence, the admitted superior longevity of the free colored class, is materially lessened, when we take into account the fact “that many of these aged persons had been liberated at, or past middle age, for services rendered by them to their masters.”—(Tucker.) If we also recollect, what Quetelet has demonstrated, that the fecundity of marriages at middle age, is greatly less than the fecundity of youthful parents, these two facts will go far to account for the apparently large proportion of longevity which is enjoyed by the free colored class, a longevity due, not to the proportion of the free colored class, but to them in common with the slaves, and a still wider basis,* which has been hinted at in an early portion of this essay. The colored class are also, to some extent, a mixed race, and hence, without going to the supposition of Tucker,† their longevity is actually, in part, based upon the proportion of the white population.

According to Tucker, (p. 54,) the number of

	Per cent. in 1830,	Per cent. in 1840,
Whites under 10, was,.....	32.53	31.63
Free colored, under 10,.....	30.11	28.88
Slaves, under 10, was,.....	34.09	33.93

By an inspection of the above, it would seem that a mean of the per centage under 10, of the free colored and slaves, would be about the same per centage of the whole, under 10, as of the whites under the same age. And this would be true if the slaves and free colored were equally divided, and had been separated into such classes during one hundred years before 1830. But, as the free colored are only one-sixth portion of the entire colored population, and as they have been separated from the slaves but recently, and are, for the reason stated on last page, less productive of increase, it would be but fair to estimate the entire proportion of colored, free, and slaves, under 10, at about 34 per cent.

By an examination of table C, (census of the United States,) it will be seen, that the larger the proportion of the population under 10 years, the less the proportion over 70 years. In Vermont, for example, among the males, there are 29.31 per cent‡ under 10 years of age, and 2.05 per cent

* Progress of the United States, p. 73. “The mixed breed ** may be more tenacious of life than either the white or negro race.”

† The decimation of the slave-trade. The account of the fearful mortality on board the Pons, where the *strong* survived the weak, confirms the views already given.

‡ Vermont has, above 10 years, 7,068,572 in 10 millions, or 70.68 in 100. That is, 70.68 per cent above 10, and, by subtraction, 29.32 per cent under 10. In table C, the per centage between any given ages, may in like manner be obtained by subtraction. For

above 70 years : in Georgia, among the same class and sex, there are 36.98 per cent under 10 years, and only .96, not 1 per cent, above 70.

It is a prevalent opinion that the colored population endure the heat of the climate in the Southern states better than the whites. Hence, it becomes interesting to determine whether the slaves in the slave states have a longevity equal to that of the whites in the same states. This question can only be answered by an approximation, which will not vary much from the truth.

By table C, it appears that the whites, above 10 years, are, in—

	Males.	Females.
Virginia,.....	66.18754	67.55279
North Carolina,.....	64.94152	67.06070
South Carolina,.....	65.27992	66.45409
Georgia,.....	63.02996	62.69607
	259.43894	263.76365
		259.43894
		8)523.20259
Males and females above 10 years,.....	65.40032+	

Which is about 65.40 per cent above 10 years of age, and therefore, 34.60 per cent under 10 years ; and this is in the Southern states, which have been longest settled, and which are, according to table C, most favorable to the longevity of the whites. We have, therefore, in these states, the number of—

Whites under 10 years of age,.....	Per cent.
Slaves " " " "	34.60
	34.09
Difference,.....	.51

Hence, the slaves, having one-half of one per cent fewer than the whites under 10 years of age, it is extremely probable that they have a larger proportion over 70 years of age, than the whites have in the above-named states ; and it is almost certain that they have a greater proportion of longevity than the whites in all the Southern states ; Maryland, although a slave state, has a comparatively mild climate, and must therefore be omitted. It is properly classed by Tucker among the Middle states.

If allowance be made for the depressing circumstances in which slavery of necessity places the slaves, thereby curtailing their longevity, it is fair to infer that, if free from this depression, the slaves would attain a greater longevity. And there are sufficient grounds for the belief that the slaves, under a mean temperature of 66°17, performing their daily labor in the open air, exposed at once to the heat of an almost tropical sun, and the malaria of an alluvial soil, pregnant with organic remains—the slaves, under all these disadvantages, would, if freed from slavery, attain a longevity not

instance ; let it be required to find the per centage of white males, between 10 and 15 years of age, in Vermont.

By table C, there are, above 10 years, in Vermont,.....	White males.
" " " " " 15 " " "	7,068,572
	5,810,543
Difference,.....	1,258,029

That is, 1,258,029 in 10 millions, or 12.58 in 100 ; which is the same as 12.58 per cent of white males between 10 and 15 years of age in Vermont.

(Kaemtz.) In Iceland, the most thickly peopled districts have barely 2 inhabitants to the square mile.* Although considerably advanced in civilization, the people of Iceland "seldom live to an advanced age."† The mean annual temperature of Iceland is 0°, C., or 32°, Fahr. (Kaemtz.)

On the other hand, where organic life flourishes, there we find a vast capacity for increase in the human family, as in inter-tropical Africa, and Hindostan. In one portion of the latter country, in the Delta of the Ganges, under a mean annual temperature of 79°, Fahr., the Bengalee, a native race, numbering 25,000,000, occupy only 80,000 square miles of territory,‡ which is about 312 persons to the square mile.

But, whether the very sparse population of the frozen regions, or the densely crowded inhabitants of the Delta of the Ganges, produce the larger proportion of longevity, is a question which we cannot, at present, answer, for the want of statistical data.

It may be objected to the standard of longevity adopted in this essay, that it is founded on the ages of the *living*, and omits the ages of the *dying*. The following table is offered in reply to the objection.

TABLE OF THE POPULATION OF BELGIUM.—(Quetelet.)

Age.	Deduced from the Table of Mortality.	Obtained directly by the census.	Age.	Deduced from the Table of Mortality.	Obtained directly from the census.
Birth,	100,000	100,000	71 years	4,116	3,041
1 year	96,937	97,215	75 "	2,379	1,820
2 years	94,562	94,446	79 "	1,205	884
3 "	92,401	91,962	81 "	816	543
5 "	88,400	87,034	85 "	327	222
6 "	86,487	84,648	87 "	190	127
8 "	82,768	80,274	89 "	104	72
10 "	79,143	76,138	90 "	76	50
16 "	68,648	64,707	91 "	55	33
20 "	61,932	57,854	92 "	39	25
30 "	46,506	41,047	93 "	27	18
40 "	32,992	27,639	94 "	19	13
50 "	21,289	17,471	95 "	12	9
53 "	18,154	14,488	96 "	8	6
56 "	15,220	12,039	97 "	4	4
59 "	12,495	9,899	98 "	2	2
62 "	9,993	7,811	99 "	1	1
65 "	7,746	6,058	100 and upwards,	1	1
69 "	5,194	3,951			

From this table it appears that, after the third year, and until the 97th year, the table of population deduced from the table of mortality, gives greater results. Yet, as these results are greater in an almost *constant ratio*, it follows that the age of the living, bearing this *constant ratio* to the age of the dying, may, therefore, fairly be taken for the actual age of a given population, even independently of, and without the age of the dying. At all events, the living age of one population may be compared with the living age of another population, and the result of the comparison will be as accurate as if the age of the living and the age of the dying were obtained and compared in each population, with the living and the dying of the other. For, the ratio of the living to the dying being *constant in both cases*, the living in the one being compared with the living in the other, the dying of the one would have the very same proportion to the dying of the other, according to the well-known doctrine of proportionals.

* Calculated from M'Culloch's Gazetteer, Harper's edition, vol. 2, p. 3.

† Idem, p. 4.

‡ Id., vol 1, p. 1,105.

CONCLUSIONS.

The statements in this essay are entirely based upon statistical data, from the conviction on the part of the writer, that no other data should be admitted as evidence on the "influence of climate on longevity."

The statements of travellers and historians are omitted; because, in regard to the first, the observation of no one man can be sufficiently wide to demand an assent to his views, when those views relate to what statistics alone can prove; and in regard to the historian, his views on the question before us, are the result of inferences drawn from sources other than calculations based on statistics.

The conclusions which appear to be warranted by the matter in this essay, are the following:

1st. That the temperature of the atmosphere has a decided influence on the longevity of the whole, and of separate parts of the human family.

2d. That the great Indo-European race enjoys the largest share of longevity in a mean annual temperature of from 45° to 55°, Fahr.; their longevity being diminished by a temperature above or below that limit.

3d. That the negro, and the dark races of mankind, can endure a mean annual temperature higher than the limit of the Indo-European race, and enjoy a greater degree of longevity than that race under the aforesaid high temperature.

4th. Whilst extreme cold is a limit to the longevity of the human race, extreme heat has not yet been proven, and, in all probability, is not a limit to the longevity of races who have long lived beneath a high temperature.

5th. Excessive climates, (viz., those which have a wide annual range of the thermometer,) as New England, are not unfavorable to the longevity of the Indo-European race, when a large share of the excess is on the side of a low temperature.

Art. II.—THE WAREHOUSING SYSTEM:

CONSIDERED IN REFERENCE TO ITS APPLICATION TO THE COMMERCIAL POLICY OF THE UNITED STATES OF NORTH AMERICA.

THE increasing commerce of the United States demands at the hands of the government corresponding facilities for carrying it on. The interests of the country are so minutely interwoven with its commerce, that the one cannot be neglected without sacrificing the other. Every branch of agriculture, of manufacture, every line of trade, of mechanical pursuit, though not perhaps immediately obvious, are, nevertheless, directly interested, as I design to show, in promoting the extension and general welfare of commerce.

So far as my observation extends, the vast advantages connected with what is usually denominated the warehousing system, and the urgent necessity which presses upon the country for its establishment, are very imperfectly understood.

Having enjoyed its benefits, and witnessed its working for nearly forty years in England, I will endeavor to bring the subject before you, and to explain and illustrate it, both in theory and practice, in so plain and familiar a way, that every merchant, farmer, and mechanic, may fully comprehend it.

I think every citizen will see that, since the abolition of credits upon duties upon foreign imports, and the substitution of immediate cash payments, the necessity of such a measure has greatly increased, and that the commerce of the country is crippled through the want of it.

The warehousing system was introduced in England in 1803. A strange idea had prevailed which operated to prevent its earlier introduction, that it had some similitude to the excise system, whereas nothing could be more opposite; that it would tend to concentrate the commerce of the country, and create a kind of monopoly in the hands of the government; but, in point of fact, the government, as such, have no kind of interest in the goods themselves, any more than a banker has in deposits lodged in his hands, subject to be drawn out at the will of the depositor. Subsequent statutes extended the privileges to various out-ports under certain modifications, and were finally consolidated and brought into one in 1833, during the short reign of William 4th, and I am not aware of any material alteration since that date, excepting the extension of the privilege to Manchester, an inland town, and perhaps to some other places not strictly ports of entry.

The system is the same throughout Great Britain, but the like privileges in respect to the number and kind of articles admitted under warehousing bond varies, as local circumstances, colonial interests, and other causes render expedient.

The various articles thus admitted on importation to be warehoused, are classed, by the English laws, under six heads. Timber, for example, may be warehoused where tobacco, India goods, &c., could not be without incurring the expense for warehouses, that the limited trade of a third or fourth-rate port would not justify. But I see no reason for such a classification in this country. The system, under the direction of the customs department, may well be extended to all the ports of entry in the United States, especially as exclusive privileges are not in accordance with the genius of our government.

The leading features of the warehousing system may be arranged under the following heads:

1st. The right of importing a cargo, or any part of a cargo, of foreign goods or produce, and warehousing the same in a government store, or a private store licensed by government to receive such goods without paying any duty, but entering the goods at the custom-house in bond. That is, to be delivered into a government bonded warehouse, specified in the entry.

2d. The right of exporting that cargo, or any part of it, to any foreign port free of duty.

3d. The right of transferring these goods in bond, just as they are in the warehouse, to A, B or C.

4th. The right of entering at the custom-house any part of that cargo, at any time, for home consumption, paying the import duty upon the quantity entered at the time of making the entry.

A small rent is charged by government to defray expenses, as we shall notice in the sequel.

Let us see the practical effects of this system, reserving an analysis of the laws that guide it, and their applicability to our own country, for a future communication.

Allow me to illustrate this branch of the subject by a reference to daily

practice, and by importing a cargo of tobacco from Virginia into London, of 500 hhds., each weighing 1,400 lbs. It cost 6 cents a pound in Virginia. The ship arrives in London docks. I find the duty is 76 cents a pound, and amounts to \$532,000 on the cargo. The enormous amount of duty renders an immediate sale necessary, but the heavy state of the market, and the absence of all demand, renders that impracticable. If I must pay the duty down in cash, and wait the slow process of demand and sales for reimbursement, it would ruin me. My only alternative, therefore, is to send the cargo back to Virginia. "No, no," the government say, "you need not do that. We have a warehouse here, and warehousemen to take care of it. Send your tobacco to our store, without paying the duty, and we shall charge you 40 cents a hogshead when you put it into store, and when you sell it for home consumption or exportation, and the purchaser takes it away, he must pay 40 cents more, and that is all the rent we shall charge you for five years."* Well and good. I see now I shall suffer no inconvenience. I shall have time to wait a better market, and to take advantage of a more active demand, for the benefit of my Virginian correspondent. Nay, I can go further: he may send me another cargo, or half a dozen cargoes if he pleases, for I shall have the freight, only, and 40 cents a hogshead rent to pay, and I can manage that. Some Bremen gentleman may want half a dozen hogsheads so soon as the ice breaks up in the spring; or a Hamburg or Dantzic merchant may want a supply. Then the French contracts, an odious monopoly of the government, may create a demand. The Irish, too, will soon be in the market, and then all the colonies, far and near, must come in. Besides, there is the home market, which always requires feeding. Speculative purchasers, too, enjoying the same privileges as the importer, of holding his stock without rent for five years from the date of the first entry, may choose to make investments, and hold for advance in prices.

This reasoning applies with equal force to every article of importation, from every part of the world; and thus it will be seen that London, as the exemplifying representative of the whole kingdom, becomes, by the most simple and wise of all commercial arrangements, not only the granary of corn, but the capacious magazine of the produce and manufactures of the whole world.

The tobacco warehouse in the London docks covers four acres of ground, and is the property of the London Dock Company. The vaults below are appropriated to the warehousing of wine, and generally contain about 20,000 pipes. It is rented by the government at \$75,500 per annum. The warehouse is under the charge of a custom-house officer, who is designated the Superintendent of the Tobacco Warehouse. When the cargo is entered for the warehouse, the permit to land is sent to him. The ship is hauled alongside of the warehouse quay, and the tobacco is landed directly into the warehouse. The laborers then proceed to weigh, sample, and record each hogshead. This is done in a very simple and expeditious manner. The hoops are started from one end of the hogshead, and one head taken out. It is then canted into the scales, with the headless end upon the scales. The hogshead is then lifted off, and the tobacco stands like a sugar-loaf divested of its paper wrapping. It is weighed, inspected, and sampled as it stands. If any part is found damaged, by salt

* This plan owes its origin to the late Mr. Claggett, an eminent tobacco merchant of Virginia, then residing in London.

water or otherwise, the damaged part is hewed off by an instrument resembling a butcher's cleaver, only of larger size. Three or four hands of tobacco are drawn generally from the middle and both ends of the hogshead, neatly tied together, and labelled with mark, number, and weight, upon a slip of vellum. These labels and samples are the evidence of quantity and quality, by which both the sale and purchase are regulated. They are then put away in chests, in an apartment provided for that purpose in the warehouse, or are sent, together with a small book containing an account of the cargo, to the merchant's or broker's counting-house, agreeably to the orders of the importer.

The merchant has no occasion to go to the docks at all. He may sit in his counting-house, give his orders, and transact the whole business. The system is so complete in practice that it would be a difficult thing for him to deviate from it in the smallest particular.

The following charges, independently of rent, are made on tobacco in the London docks :—

Landing, coopering, weighing, sampling, and making merchantable at landing scale, per 100 lbs. net,.....	12 cents.
On delivery for exportation, including coopering,.....	5 “
Ditto, if resampled,.....	6 “
Unhousing and loading, per hogshead,.....	24 “
Resampling, do.	48 “

Thus you will see that nothing is left to the discretion of the custom-house officer, or anybody else. Every charge is fixed and permanent, and the merchant knows what he will have to pay. Warrants and transfers are granted on written application at the docks, in favor of such person as the importer may designate, free of any charge for the first transfer. Subsequent transfers are subject to a small charge, according to the number of packages transferred, from 2 cents to 24. One to two packages, 2 cents; three to four packages, 4 cents; and so on up to forty-six packages, which pay, as well as all above that number, 24 cents for each transfer after the first.

Ships can load an assorted cargo, or with a single article, at any time, and for any country, without resorting to the place of actual growth or manufacture. The exporting merchant can be supplied with goods from China, India, or the continent of Europe; with clocks from Connecticut, cotton goods from Massachusetts, tobacco from Virginia, cotton from Georgia, pork, beef and corn from the west, and all the various productions of the soil, of woods and forests, of the seas, and of the mechanical arts, all at the same time and place. The system does not interfere in the least degree with the revenues of the government. The home demand remains the same, and the supply is always ready to meet it. A few years ago, when corn—I use the term in the European sense, as denoting all descriptions of grain—was scarce and high in the United States, many cargoes were shipped direct from the London docks, as well as from the out-ports, from the bonded warehouses to the United States. The price was about the same, including freight and charges from the continent, as if shipped direct from a continental port. Thus you see Great Britain, at second hand, supplied the American market. This she could not have done if her granaries were not amply supplied with foreign importations. She held, in a great measure, the corn trade of Europe in her hands, and reaped all the benefits of import and export.

Let us direct our attention to the working of this system at home. Suppose I import \$100,000 worth of manufactured goods, the average duty upon which is 25 per cent; insurance, freight, carriage, and incidental charges, 5 per cent; exchange, 9 per cent. These goods cost me, supposing I pay the duty, \$139,000 in New York. In disposing of them, I ought to have 10 per cent on their cost, which would make 49 per cent upon the original cost, to be paid by the consumer. But if I am allowed to warehouse the goods without paying the duty, I have but 14 per cent to pay upon prime cost. A merchant of Ohio wishes to purchase 10 packages of these goods of the value of \$10,000, and I sell them to him in bond at 10 per cent profit. But, instead of charging him \$14,900, which includes cost price, charges and duty, I sell them at only prime cost and charges, exclusive of duty, and, in consequence, for \$12,400. He saves, therefore, by the operation of the bonding system, 10 per cent upon \$2,500, the amount of duty. If the retailer regulates his sale price by the cost of his goods, the consumer in Ohio has the whole benefit of the reduced price. The government receives the same amount of duties as if paid at the time of its importation, and no loss or inconvenience is sustained by any one. This result may be extended to the consumption of the country. By the returns of the last census, it appears that 83 per cent of the whole population of the United States is engaged in agricultural pursuits. If \$20,000,000 be about the sum necessary to be raised by duties upon imports, then \$16,600,000 of that sum is paid by the agriculturists, and the saving to the agricultural interest, by the application of the bonding system, upon the ground that all the goods brought into consumption were sold by the importer in bond, which I do not suppose would be the case, would be \$1,660,000 annually. Just in proportion, however, to the extent of sales in bond for home consumption, would be the benefit accruing to the landed interest of the country.

But, in a national point of view, there are far higher advantages to be noticed. The ports of entry become so many vast magazines for all descriptions of foreign produce and manufactures that at any time seek a market in the western hemisphere.

The merchants of South America, and all the trading community, and especially in the western world, find in our seaports every article they can want, and instead of confining our exports chiefly to our own produce, we mingle with them supplies from all nations. We invite and accommodate their trade because we can supply their wants. A reciprocal commerce will spring up beyond what can easily be conceived by those who have not turned their attention to the subject. A healthful state of the market is wonderfully sustained by regular supply and demand. There is no superabundance of goods found upon the market to depress prices, and ruin the merchants; but supplies are drawn from the public warehouse just sufficient to meet the current demand of the population, and no more. There is no scarcity and no excessive supply in the market. Those articles, essential as the means of national defence, as saltpetre, brimstone, and the like, need not be accumulated at the national expense. They will be found in the public stores, deposited on private account, ready for any emergency. The objection which I heard made in Washington, by a member of Congress, that the system proposed would, in its practice, inundate the country with foreign manufactures, is entirely fallacious. On the contrary, like the governor of a steam-engine, it would regulate and

equalise the motion of the whole machinery. No merchant would be so unwise as to pay duty upon his imports before they are wanted, when there is no occasion for it. No matter how great and diversified the quantity of goods accumulated in warehouse may be, the greater the better. The home market takes off just what the consumption of the country requires, and no more. In addition to that, the whole world is our customer. Monopoly is superseded, scarcity prevented, and our whole system of trade and commerce placed upon a footing calculated to promote the stability of trade and the welfare of the country. The diversified interests of the country are systematically poised, and the harmony, union, and mutual good feeling of our population, somewhat scandalized by sectional views, are gathered into the fold of one great family compact, and move on without that jarring, and discord, and restiveness, which sometimes disturb the elements of society.

If there be any country where such a system, duly organized, and faithfully carried into practice, will prove a blessing, it is our own. The deficiency of capital, compared with the enterprise and manifest genius of the people, scarcely affords a fair scope for commercial competition with the rest of the world, and it is the interest of the country, and I think ought to be the policy of the government, to encourage all legitimate means to remedy so great an impediment. Nor are we left in darkness on this important point. England, by forty years' experience, has demonstrated its utility; and one can hardly presume, independently of the dictates of common sense, that a system injurious in itself, and disastrous to the national interests, would have been continued and extended by a nation singularly sagacious in her commercial policy. The advantages of the warehousing system, on the one hand, are so manifest, and the disadvantages arising from the want of it so palpable on the other, that it seems impossible that any one should lift the standard of opposition against its adoption. One must know the fact to believe it.

ART. III.—THE COMMERCE OF PHILADELPHIA.

THE city of Philadelphia, the most elegant in its architectural decorations, and the second in size of any in the Union, possesses extraordinary advantages for inland trade, and valuable facilities for foreign commerce. Stretching an extensive line of shipping, and regular streets, along the western bank of the Delaware, the largest vessels of its harbor have an uninterrupted navigation to the ocean. Its central position between the states of the north, the south, and the west, to which points it has run numerous tracks of railroads or canals, afford convenient channels for the domestic import and export trade from and to those regions. The interior spreads out a broad and fertile agricultural territory, abounding in all those products of the soil which are required for consumption and transportation abroad. The hills and valleys of the surrounding country contain inexhaustible beds of coal and mines of iron, and the industry of the people, which is employed in the fields, the manufactories, the workshops and the mines, annually furnishes a large amount of products from those sources, which affords cargoes to its ships, and freights to the numerous railroads and canals which diverge from the city. We design, in the present paper, to exhibit the prominent features of the commerce of this metropolis, in

relation to the resources of trade within its own bounds, as well as those of the adjacent region, from which it derives its prosperity.

The regular plan in which Philadelphia is laid out, is not the consequence of accident, but design. Its founder, William Penn, had early determined that a large city should here be established, and in July, 1681, there was published, before he left England, "Concessions to adventurers and purchasers in the province," in which he agreed that, as soon as the original colonists should arrive, "a certain quantity of land, or ground-plot, shall be laid out for a large town or city, in the most convenient place upon the river for health and navigation, and every purchaser and adventurer shall, by lot, have so much land therein as will answer to the proportion he hath bought, or taken up upon rent." A relative of the proprietor, Col. William Markham, was, in May of the same year, despatched with a number of colonists, to announce to the natives and Swedes the grant of the province to the proprietor; and, in the autumn, three commissioners were despatched to this place, to select the site, and lay out the city. In conformity with a plan at that time projected, it was laid out, Penn having reached the infant city in 1682, and we now behold in its regular and spacious streets, its uniform blocks, and its ample squares, adorned with refreshing shades, the evidence of the wise forecast and solid judgment of its original benefactor.

Nor are the advantages derived from the judicious policy of Penn inferior to those which are the consequence of its natural resources. It is situated near the junction of two rivers, which furnish channels of trade and commerce from the metropolis of Pennsylvania to and from the various parts of its rich territory, and the adjoining regions. The western front is washed by the Schuylkill, which rises in a mineral region, and flowing through a fertile district, bears those products to that section of the city; while the east is watered by the Delaware, which flows through a section rich in agriculture, manufactures, and the mechanic arts, floating the steamboats and shipping at its eastern wharves, and bearing them to the sea. Those articles which are required for necessary subsistence are here found in the greatest variety and abundance. The products of the granary and the pasture, the orchard and the farm, are here produced in extraordinary perfection, and the rivers which border its eastern and western side, with their canals or railroads, traversing the banks, and flowing from mountains containing inexhaustible quantities of anthracite coal, afford, at comparatively a small expense, this necessary fuel. The domestic and foreign trade, furnished by the dense and increasing population of the interior, the exportation of its domestic products abroad, and the construction of numerous private mansions and public edifices, tend to stimulate the enterprises of industry, and to supply wealth and elegance to the prosperity of the city.

One of the most prominent features of its commercial enterprise consists in its manufactures; and it must be admitted that in the numerous products of manufacturing industry, Philadelphia is exceeded by no city of the country, so far as their variety and excellence are concerned. Its artisans are distinguished for their skill, and in the implements furnished; and especially in the carriages and other vehicles of conveyance produced by the useful arts, it has no rival. The various manufactures of iron, the material of iron and coal here being so abundant, have attained, by the perseverance and ingenuity of its artisans and machinists, an excellence which can

scarcely be surpassed, and their improvement has been exceedingly rapid. The number of iron-foundries and machine-shops in the northwestern part of the city, can hardly fail to arrest observation, and their products have been multiplied, and they have increased in proportion to the demand furnished by the extension of railroads, and the advance of improvement. The manufacturing enterprise of its population, in fact, supplies almost everything of this species of product which is required by the wants of men. Woollen and cotton fabrics, mixed goods, silk, hats, caps, straw bonnets, leather, saddlery and harness, boots and shoes, hardware and cutlery, tobacco, soap and candles, glass, drugs and medicines, earthenware, and manufactures from the precious metals, paper, books, manufactures from marble and stone, confectionary, distilled and fermented liquors, constitute but a portion of the enterprise here directed to manufacturing and mechanical industry.

There are within its bounds twenty-nine woollen factories, which produce annually fabrics to the value of nearly a million of dollars; forty-five cotton factories, which produce goods annually to the value of between three and four millions, and mixed goods to the annual amount of between eight and nine hundred thousand are produced. There are also twelve sugar refineries and confectionaries, yielding an annual amount of more than a million of dollars; twelve millions of gallons of distilled and fermented liquors are also produced, and the yearly value of carriages and wagons made, has been estimated at three hundred thousand dollars. From the abundance of marble and stone in this quarter, there are also extensive stone-cutting establishments, both for architectural purposes as well as for those which are merely ornamental; bricks are made in large quantity, for the manufacture of which there are extensive brick-yards within the borders, and in the neighborhood of the city; and the number of houses annually erected, has been estimated at one thousand, their annual cost exceeding three millions of dollars. There are, moreover, between two and three hundred thousand dollars in value produced in the manufactures of hardware and cutlery, between two and three millions of dollars' worth of the manufactures of the precious metals, and between eight and nine hundred thousand of other metals. Ship-building is also carried on to some extent, and also the manufacture of cordage, which is made in the numerous ropewalks within or near the limits of the city.

But it is in the amount and excellence of their steam-engines, and various other forms of machinery wrought from iron, that Philadelphia is peculiarly distinguished. Extensive establishments for the manufacture of these products, so useful in the enterprises of the present day, have been erected in various parts of the city, and iron-foundries, forges, steam-engine factories, fire-engine factories, and workshops, exist, which produce yearly a large amount of value. It has been estimated, indeed, from well authenticated facts, that the annual amount of machinery here made, yields between one and two millions of dollars. We would particularly specify the enormous establishment for the manufacture of railroad engines, which is conducted by Baldwin, and that which has been erected for the same purpose, and under the direction of Norris. These gigantic works appear to cover several acres. In passing through the spacious forge rooms and furnishing shops of these extensive establishments, one can hardly fail to be impressed with the neatness, thrift, and precision which seem to pervade their management. In the various departments of those

edifices which are employed for the construction of the different parts of the machinery of the engines, from the first forging of the bar, to the last finishing of the brazen and polished wheel, there is an order and a regularity which evince the advantages of method in the prosecution of business. In the different departments, we behold the various places where each bolt and bar are constructed, until that extraordinary invention of modern times, a finished locomotive engine, is wheeled out, ready to be launched upon one of our hundreds of railroads. So excellent are the engines which have been constructed in those establishments, and so wide is the demand, that those which are manufactured in Philadelphia, are found in almost every part of our own country, as well as upon the railroads of Russia, Austria, and even in England, that great workshop of the world.

Having briefly described the general character of the manufactures of Philadelphia, we now direct our attention to the staples which are furnished to the enterprise of commerce by the resources of the soil. The territory of Pennsylvania now constitutes one of the principal agricultural states of the Union. The pastures are grazed by innumerable herds, which supply the shamble and the dairy, and the yellow corn and golden wheat wave and bend upon all its hills and valleys, while a vast amount of the various sorts of the cereal grains, and other agricultural products, are annually accumulated in the granaries. Besides, the mineral treasures of the land supply a great proportion of the export trade. The vast quantity of coal which is mined every year from its hills, that are inexhaustible in this mineral, furnish profitable cargoes to the numerous vessels which ply from the port of its metropolis; for it may be remembered that the coal of Pennsylvania almost exclusively meets the demand for this article in the Atlantic states. Iron, likewise, which is here mined in large quantity, constitutes a staple of the export trade, either in a crude state, in the form of machinery, or other manufactured products; while the various workshops, forges, foundries, and manufacturing establishments of the interior, forward a considerable portion of their products to Philadelphia, as the grand depot of distribution and shipment.

The facilities both of foreign commerce and domestic trade, are much extended by the numerous and extensive public works which have been established in various parts of the state, and which concentrate in its metropolis. Numerous railroads, &c., of extraordinary elegance, diverge from Philadelphia to the extreme points of the state, furnishing not only channels for the transportation of the manufactured and commercial products of the city into the remote interior, but also for the carriage of the various products of the interior into the city. These lines of railways, canals, and roads, extend far into the bordering states, and meet the banks of the great western waters. It is thus that the products of the West, even those along the banks of the Alleghany, the Monongahela, the Ohio, and the lakes, find their markets in the metropolis of Philadelphia, while the commercial and manufactured products of this metropolis, discover points of sale along the eastern and western bases of the Alleghany mountains.

We here annex a statement of the following articles received at and despatched from the Columbia Railway route, during the year commencing December 1st, 1844, and ending November 30th, 1845.

Articles.	Arrived East.	Dep. West.	Articles.	Arr. East.	Dep. West.
Flour,.....bbls.	188,993	35	Hides,lbs.	532,250
Wheat,bush.	23,217	1,160	Cheese,.....	216,300	15,740
Corn,.....	154,423	Queensware,.....	4,300	4,315,500
Oats,.....	83,954	Paints,.....	192,900
Seed,.....	63,958	531	Brown muslin,....	3,073,150
Bacon,.....lbs.	7,044,300	5,900	Lard and lard oil,	2,039,000	10,200
Cotton,.....	929,100	647,400	French burr stones,	29,700	166,500
Drugs,.....	10,800	596,350	Deer & buff. skins,	566,900
Copper,.....	9,500	186,350	Mahogany,.....	25,700
Coffee,.....	11,600	6,940,200	Kelp,.....	365,400	30,600
Iron—Blooms,....	1,572,550	275,200	Hemp,.....	576,200	301,600
Pig,.....	48,400	710,000	Feathers,.....	584,300
Bar & sheet,	10,890,900	541,000	Other ag. products,	531,100	138,600
Castings, ..	620,800	713,700	White lead,.....	13,000	30,300
Nails,.....	99,000	45,670	Paper,.....	274,300	176,500
Groceries,.....	51,200	11,653,500	Straw paper,.....	306,000	1,400
Wool,.....	3,317,400	312,300	Ale, beer, and por-	843
Hardware, etc.,..	146,400	10,248,400	ter,.....bbls.
Leather,.....	585,100	176,500	Window glass,lbs.	58,800	20,300
Tobacco,.....	3,305,700	354,850	Dry goods,.....	621,550	20,998,500
Lumber,.....feet	1,193,305	277,700	Glassware,.....	57,200	127,200
Rags,.....lbs.	860,650	744,800	Lime,.....bush.	87,000	3,800
Furs,.....	89,700	Staves,.....No.	49,300	15,700
Fish,.....bbls.	10,044	Anvils,.....lbs.	255,100
Furniture,.....lbs.	337,200	575,100	Clay, German,....	1,700	390,900
Tallow,.....	487,700	Span. whiting,....	527,200
Lead,.....	1,000	61,300	Tin,.....	876,300
Live stock,.....	2,896,850	13,500	Oysters,.....bush.	1,648
Oil,.....galls.	165	71,931	Marble,lbs.	665,900	728,500
Hops,.....lbs.	806	17,500	Tar,.....	78,200
Salt,.....bush.	47,132	Liquors,....galls.	26,200
Plaster, tons	1,351	Pot-ash,.....	186,650
Dye-stuffs,.....lbs.	1,700	279,700	Rope and cordage,	83,000	34,600
Whiskey,.....gals.	465,911	Potatoes,....bush.	1,248	2,000
Agric. implements,	300	Alum,.....lbs.	11,200
Brick,No.	404,300	Cider & vin.,.gals.	1,100	32
Bark,.....lbs.	426,500	Shingles,.....No.	29,300	3,500
Butter,.....	1,218,300	Ochre,.....lbs.	2,300
Sundries,.....	1,543,000	789,480	Oil-cake,.....	49,600
Coal,.....tons	2,617	Hay,.....	36,000
Tolls received,.....	\$236,629	10
Loaded cars going west,.....	No.	17,144
Lading,.....	lbs.	75,491,286

The great bulk of the foreign trade of Pennsylvania, it may be well known, passes through Philadelphia, and the exports and imports embrace most of the ports of Europe. Some of the principal staples which are exported from the city, are flour, which is manufactured in the state, and the bordering states of Ohio and Delaware, as well as corn-meal and wheat. The tobacco and cotton, the pork and lard, the naval stores, rice and bark from the western and southern states, also form a considerable part of the articles exported from this port. The oil, sperm candles, fish, and cotton fabrics, from the fisheries and manufacturing establishments of New England, supply a considerable portion of the cargoes of Philadelphia ships which are exported abroad. The various manufactures of iron which are produced within the bounds of the city, its refined sugar, soap and candles, its manufactured tobacco, furniture, and various other products of Philadelphia industry, go to swell the amount of foreign cargoes, and to those may be added the products of agricultural enterprise throughout the different portions of the interior. In return, the foreign imports are com-

posed of the manufactures of cotton, silk, linen, wool, iron and other metals, as well as various articles from Great Britain and continental Europe; and coffee, sugar, molasses, rum, hides, mahogany, dye-woods, manufactured tobacco, and other products, from South America and the West Indies.

But the inland trade of Philadelphia, extending to the different portions of the state of Pennsylvania, as well as to the bordering region, is much more extensive than its foreign commerce. The coal, iron, glass, lumber, flour, wheat, and other products of the western part of the state, including the extensive manufacturing city of Pittsburgh, find their way in large quantities to the city of Philadelphia, where they are either used or shipped to other parts of the Union. One of the most important, indeed, we may allege the most valuable, staple of domestic export derived from the resources of the Pennsylvania mines, is that of coal, a large portion of which is shipped from the port of Philadelphia. This valuable mineral product has now grown into extensive and increasing use; and we are enabled to judge of the profit which Pennsylvania derives from her coal mines, when we know that coal is generally employed for fuel in all our Atlantic cities and villages, and, to a great extent, for manufacturing purposes, and for the propulsion of steamboats and railroad cars, and that the great bulk of the coal thus used, as we before remarked, is obtained from the hills of Pennsylvania. The trade in coal, as a prominent enterprise of the city of Philadelphia, is manifest in the various quarters of this metropolis, each of which has extensive depots for its distribution. A railroad, extending from Pottsville, in Schuylkill county, the centre of the Schuylkill coal region, connected with the railroads which extend from the mining district to the river, furnishes a direct and rapid line of communication between the Schuylkill coal district and the city of Philadelphia. Long trains of cars, laden with coal, are continually passing upon this road, either to Philadelphia or to Richmond, an extensive coal depot, with expensive fixtures, situated above the city, upon the bank of the Delaware.

Although Philadelphia, with the adjoining districts of the Northern Liberties, Spring Garden, Kensington, Southwark, and Moyamensing, which, though at present divided by separate municipal jurisdictions, yet form one continuous settlement, contained in 1840 a population of two hundred and fifty-eight thousand, and now numbers nearly three hundred thousand inhabitants, yet, from the distance of its port from the ocean, the direct commerce is scarcely proportioned to its magnitude and importance in other respects. The shipping moored at its wharves, exports cargoes to England, France, Holland, and their colonies, as well as the other principal seaports of Europe, bringing back valuable freight in return; yet a considerable proportion of the foreign merchandise which supplies its warehouses, is brought into the port of New York, and is thence transported to its harbor, either by railroads and steamboats, or by vessels in the coastwise trade. Many foreign goods, besides manufactures of cotton and wool, shoes, bonnets, fish, oil, and other products of the industry of the more northern states, are received from New England, and a large amount of goods from England, France, China, and the principal nations of Europe, is here landed from New York. To the neighboring state of New Jersey, she sends her coal, lime, and iron, as well as various other products of her own manufactories, and her coal, flour, wheat, and corn, to New York and the New England states. Besides, she transports to the adjoining states, the products of New England, the manufactures of cotton, wool,

leather, and iron. Agricultural products are introduced from New Jersey, and Delaware sends its flour, corn-meal, wheat and corn, to the port of Philadelphia. Although the exports to Virginia are moderate in their amount, yet Philadelphia receives from that state tobacco, cotton yarn, wheat, corn, and bituminous coal. Naval stores, cotton yarn, cotton and lumber, are received from North Carolina, cotton and rice from South Carolina and Georgia, and cargoes of cotton from Alabama.

A considerable amount of cotton, sugar and molasses is received from Louisiana, the product of that state, which, in return, imports a portion of the manufactures of Pennsylvania and New England for its own consumption. Heavy goods, to a large amount, are, however, sent from the port of Philadelphia to the western states, by the way of New Orleans, and there is here received in return, by the same track, considerable quantities of cotton, tobacco, hemp, pork, lard, lead, and like products from those states. A proportion of the domestic export trade of Philadelphia is prosecuted with Ohio, Kentucky, Missouri, Tennessee, Indiana, Illinois, Mississippi, and Arkansas, and consists of the export to those states of the products of New England, and the foreign merchandise which is received by the way of New York. Large freights of flour, pork, lard, tobacco, hemp, neat cattle, horses, beef, furs and wool, are likewise received from New Orleans by the way of Pittsburgh, through the extensive public works that have been advanced to that city.

The establishment of the several lines of railroads and canals to which we have alluded, conduce to the prosperity of Philadelphia in the various departments of commercial enterprise. Running through the most important and densely populated parts of the state, and intersecting the hundreds of little villages or smaller settlements of the interior, which are the concentrating points of the agricultural interests of the surrounding country, or of those regions which produce coal or iron, they constitute the avenues for the transportation of those articles to the grand depot for consumption and shipment; provide the means and motives for the population of the country to visit the city, and constitute the channel of distribution for the imported merchandise of the metropolis to the warehouses of the various inland settlements. Philadelphia now is, and must continue to be, the grand depot of export, distribution and shipment, for southern and central Pennsylvania, and indeed for the greater part of the state. The manufacturing city of Pittsburgh, lying upon the western border, may supply, as it does at present, the region around the lakes and along the banks of the Mississippi, even to New Orleans, with its manufactures of iron, glass, and steam-engines; but that city is even now tributary to the commerce of Philadelphia. Besides, the foundations of the coal and iron interests of Pennsylvania are only just laid. New mines of iron are almost every day discovered, and but a small portion of its inexhaustible coal fields are worked. The demand for those products is rapidly increasing, and we learn that in this state railroad iron is beginning to be produced in considerable quantity, and that even a cargo of Pennsylvania iron was recently exported from the port of Philadelphia to England. It is evident that the demand will increase with the growth of the country.

The shipping of Philadelphia is composed of several classes of staunch vessels, which are employed in the foreign and domestic trade. Regular lines ply between this port and New York, Boston, Charleston, New Orleans, and the other principal intermediate cities which warrant the

prosecution of the coastwise trade. There has also been recently established an elegant and commodious series of Liverpool packets, which regularly depart for that port with adequate freights and passengers. By the report of the Secretary of the Treasury, it appears, that from the 1st of July, 1843, to the 30th of June, 1844, three hundred and seventy-six American vessels entered the district of Philadelphia, constituting a tonnage of 76,791 tons, and during the same period, there were seventy-one foreign vessels, with an aggregate of 12,738 tons. The steam vessels which are employed in connexion with the railroad lines, or in the coastwise trade, also employ a considerable amount of capital and tonnage.

The registered tonnage of the district of Philadelphia, for the year ending on the 30th of June, 1844, according to the report of the Secretary of the Treasury, was 40,295.59; the enrolled and licensed tonnage during the same period, was 74,599.24; the total tonnage of this district being 114,894.83.*

In order to exhibit the precise character and amount of the trade of Philadelphia with the west, we subjoin the following tables, showing this trade during the last three years:—

A STATEMENT OF SEVERAL PRINCIPAL ARTICLES SENT WESTWARD FROM PHILADELPHIA, FOR THE YEARS 1843, 1844, AND 1845, TO SEPTEMBER 30.

	1843.	1844.	1845.
Cotton,.....lbs.	95,174	290,867	556,000
Hemp,.....	239,282	137,201	255,700
Wool,.....	36,635	126,152	277,900
Tobacco,.....	103,794	267,496	294,950
Leather,.....	102,064	17,224	123,470
Lumber,.....feet	89,237	183,235	314,550
Drugs and dyes,.....lbs.	362,943	1,002,943	1,181,300
Bar and sheet iron,.....	726,094	1,028,267	465,300
Merchandise,.....	29,478,877	39,714,608	38,158,160
Groceries,.....	17,388,414	21,386,817	18,719,365
Rags,.....	308,453	755,534	588,793

A STATEMENT OF SEVERAL PRINCIPAL ARTICLES RECEIVED AT PHILADELPHIA, FROM THE WEST, FOR THE SAME PERIOD.

	1843.	1844.	1845.
Flour,.....bbls.	217,506	187,003	130,934
Wheat,.....bush.	45,491	28,211	15,030
Bacon,.....lbs.	7,400,165	5,806,991	7,340,000
Butter and cheese,.....	1,114,091	889,364	875,250
Lard and tallow,.....	1,431,639	1,613,624	1,814,900
Live stock,.....	3,498,649	2,188,840	2,091,150
Feathers,.....	215,503	310,938	290,200
Wool,.....	1,959,457	2,561,766	2,913,600
Cotton,.....	532,895	386,446	720,400
Hemp,.....	544,634	608,724	487,800
Tobacco,.....	3,442,636	3,402,886	2,357,800
Leather,.....	510,562	588,143	609,220
Rags,.....	477,597	699,465	642,850
Bar and sheet iron,.....	5,621,587	8,401,674	16,721,350

We have before alluded to the railroad lines which diverge from the city, as furnishing convenient avenues for the transportation of merchandise, not only from other states, but to and from the interior. There are

* For tabular statements of the commerce and navigation of Philadelphia, and particularly of its tonnage, from 1789, the reader is referred to an elaborate article published in the Merchants' Magazine, in April, 1844, vol. x.

established among these means of intercommunication, two lines from New York, which daily arrive with trains of cars, well freighted with passengers and merchandise. Another line runs direct to Baltimore, through Wilmington. From the west a line of railroad is also constructed, upon which are almost continually propelled trains of cars that pour into Philadelphia the products of the west as far as Pittsburgh, and even the Mississippi. Numerous canal-boats, divided into sections, when taken from the western canals, proceed upon the wheels of this road with full freights to Philadelphia, and return by railroad and canal to their places of departure. From the last line to which we have alluded, two other railroads diverge, the one to the inland village of Westchester, and the other to the central point of the coal region, from which it transports immense quantities of coal to the places of sale or shipment within or near the city.

The magnitude which has already been attained by the city, renders it a place of no small importance to the commercial enterprise of the country, whether it is considered as a producer of the products which are used in commerce, or as a consumer of those which are produced at home and abroad. Occupying two miles in breadth between the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers, that which may properly be denominated the city, stretches a front of about four miles and a half upon the Delaware. There are here fourteen banks within the city and county, with a capital of twelve millions of dollars; and likewise numerous saving institutions and loan companies. Corporations of various sorts, such as marine, fire and life insurance companies, amount to more than twenty in number, and embody a capital of six millions of dollars. Yet, it must be admitted, that from causes which are not easily to be remedied at the present time, the taxes upon property are higher than would seem to belong to a state of perfect thrift and judicious management. The following is the assessed valuation of property subject to county taxation, in the city and the several districts, for 1843, with the amount of county and state tax levied upon each.

	Assessed valuation.	County tax.	State tax.
City,	\$58,688,499	\$294,784 50	\$180,383 95
N. Liberties,.....	9,224,409	47,923 78	24,639 22
Spring Garden,.....	8,862,404	46,133 59	22,384 44
Kensington,.....	4,023,668	20,144 64	8,261 99
Southwark,.....	5,578,619	29,168 44	12,944 54
Moyamensing,.....	2,330,341	12,257 15	5,221 78
Townships,.....	10,613,941	64,240 37	31,928 56
Total,.....	\$99,321,881	\$514,652 47	\$285,764 28

Nor should the architectural decorations which adorn the city, be passed over; for while they evince an elegance of taste which, in our judgment, is effective in elevating the public morals, they constitute the evidence of that wealth which has itself been accumulated in the operations of trade and commerce. The abundance of pure white marble which is produced in the numerous quarries near the city, and consisting of a quality especially adapted to purposes of building, has induced its general use in the embellishment of the private mansions, streets, and public edifices. Almost every square possesses its extensive blocks, which are finished with this material; the basements of the buildings which line its principal streets, the steps and door-ways, are decorated with that stone, and in the various quarters of the city specimens of marble architecture have sprung up in the simple and massive grandeur of the Doric, the more slender and

graceful elegance of the Ionic, the leafy glories of the Corinthian, and those other classic orders in which the architectural genius of modern times has effected no improvement. Philadelphia may be, in fact, properly denominated *the marble city*; for everywhere the snowy purity of the marble expands in the broad porticoes and the smooth slabs, or springs up to the cornice, in the chiselled doorway, and the sculptured column.

Among the most prominent of those edifices which have been erected for public purposes, and which are peculiarly devoted to commercial objects, is the Merchants' Exchange. It is situated in the central portion, around which are accumulated numerous mercantile establishments, where commercial and financial operations are most generally conducted, in the triangular space between Third, Walnut, and Dock streets, and within convenient proximity to the shipping of the harbor. This imposing edifice is constructed of marble, with its front constituted of a semi-circular portico, whose roof is supported by Corinthian columns. Two colossal lions of marble lie in a crouching position upon each side of the entrance. The basement of this structure, which is very spacious, is occupied by several insurance companies, as well as by the post-office, and the second story by a reading-room and consulting chambers, and the large area which is more properly the Exchange, or place where "merchants most do congregate," whose roof is supported by lofty and massive columns, and whose ceiling is adorned with appropriate paintings. The edifice itself is in every way worthy the importance of that commercial enterprise to which it is dedicated, and is a noble monument of the laudable pride and perseverance of the commercial body. Another edifice which has been erected for the improvement of those who are connected with the trade and commerce of the city, is the Mercantile Library building, a handsome structure, whose front is decorated also with Corinthian columns, and it is devoted to the younger portion of the mercantile profession. It contains the Mercantile Library, a large number of books illustrating the interests of commerce and its kindred subjects, a reading-room, and a place for the delivery of lectures to that association.

The banking-houses of the city are many of them distinguished for their architectural elegance, and among them we would especially designate the edifice formerly occupied and owned by the Bank of the United States, which is now employed as a custom-house, the Girard bank, and the Bank of Pennsylvania. The corner-stone of the edifice of the Bank of the United States was laid in 1819, and the whole was finished in 1824, at an expense, including the ground and building, of four hundred and thirteen thousand and eighty-one dollars. It is constructed of marble from the quarries of Montgomery county, near the city. In its plan it is modelled generally upon the Parthenon at Athens, with a row of Doric columns both before and behind. The door opens upon a vestibule, the ceiling of which is richly worked, and the pavement is tessellated with American and Italian marble; the interior is profusely supported by Ionic columns, and the whole structure is a monument of severe and classic architecture of the Doric order, which is probably exceeded by that of no edifice of a similar kind upon the continent.

Another banking-house, entitled the Girard bank, from the fact that it was formerly occupied as a private banking establishment by the late Stephen Girard, although constructed for the accommodation of the old Bank of the United States, is a prominent specimen of the Corinthian order of

architecture, and it is among the most elegant ornaments of the city of Philadelphia. The edifice was commenced in the year 1795, and was completed in 1798. It stands nearly facing Dock-street, occupying an oblong square, ninety-six feet in front, by seventy-two in depth. The original cost of the structure, including the ground upon which it stands, was about two hundred and fifty thousand dollars. The front is of white marble. Six fluted Corinthian columns support the roof of the portico, and the tympanum of the pediment is ornamented by a bas-relief, containing cornucopie, and besides other national emblems, the American eagle. Formerly the private property of that persevering and extraordinary, though eccentric individual, Stephen Girard, it long stood one of the most imposing specimens of Philadelphia architecture, until later and more costly edifices have cast it somewhat into the shade. The bank of Pennsylvania is another edifice which, for its classical design and execution, seldom fails to arrest the observation, for it is ranked among the most beautiful specimens of architecture. The structure is situated on Second-street, near Walnut, and it exhibits an example of the pure Grecian Ionic. Its front exhibits six columns; both the columns and the entablature of the porticos being copied from a celebrated Ionic temple upon the Ilissus, near Athens. There are also numerous other banking-houses and kindred edifices, which are no less remarkable for the facilities which they afford for the prosecution of commercial operations, than for the elegance of their design and execution.

Another edifice of considerable magnitude, and although under the administration of the general government, yet devoted to objects connected with commerce, is the United States Mint. This edifice is constructed of white marble, and was finished in 1830. It exhibits a front of about one hundred and twenty-two feet upon Chesnut-street, and the same upon Centre square, decorated with six lofty Ionic columns. All the steps connected with the coining of money from the bar of gold, silver and copper, to the stamped eagle, dollar or penny, are here prosecuted, and all the processes of assaying, refining and coining, are performed, both in the preparing and stamping the metal. The apartments of the building are elegantly arranged, and the finished and effective machinery by which all those operations are conducted, is propelled entirely by steam-power. An edifice of white marble which is connected with commerce, inasmuch as it is designed as an asylum for sick seamen, a home for veterans of the navy, and for a naval school, is the Naval Asylum of the United States. This edifice was erected by the government from the proceeds of the hospital money which is regularly paid by the officers and seamen of the navy. It is situated near the eastern bank of the Schuylkill, and was completed in 1835, the entire cost being three hundred thousand dollars. It is capable of lodging about four hundred persons. Near that structure is the United States Arsenal, which is also an imposing edifice, situated upon the same line of road.

As connected with the interests of commerce, perhaps we should allude to the navy-yard of Philadelphia, belonging to the United States, and situated in the lower part of the city; for the navy, while it constitutes an interesting department of the shipping of the nation, is made abroad the most effective protector of our mercantile marine. This institution extends from Front-street to the Delaware, and is enclosed by a brick wall, constituting an area of about twelve acres. Besides other fixtures, it con-

tains a number of substantial buildings for the accommodation of officers and marines, workshops and sheds, for the storage of lumber and other supplies for the use of the navy. There are also here two large frame buildings, to shelter those ships which are in the process of construction, the one being of a sufficient size to contain vessels of the largest class, while the other is employed for the construction of frigates, and other smaller vessels.

But the establishment which has long been a source of great advantage, and an object of pride to the city, is the Fairmount water-works, by which all parts are abundantly supplied with pure water. Those works are established upon the left bank of the Schuylkill, about two miles from the centre of the city. The process by which the city is supplied with water, is by means of a dam which is thrown across the Schuylkill; the water-power thus created, turning six large wooden wheels, which themselves keep in operation six forcing pumps, that raise the water ninety-two feet, from the pool of the dam, to the four reservoirs that are situated upon the summit of the hill. Those reservoirs are one hundred feet above tide, fifty-six feet above the highest ground in the city, and they are capable of containing about twenty-two millions of gallons. From these artificial lakes, the water is distributed throughout the city by iron pipes; the total length of those pipes being one hundred and ten miles. Five dollars a year are paid by each family for the use of the water, and the average daily consumption is about four millions of gallons. The cost of erecting those works has been about fifteen hundred thousand dollars, yet they have proved profitable. The mount, which is an oval-shaped eminence, is about one hundred feet above the water in the river, is ascended by steps, and is surrounded by a gravel walk. Indeed, the whole scene is one of extreme beauty; the wheels in motion in the mill-house, which is of stone, and connected with spacious buildings that exhibit two chaste specimens of statuary, and which open upon a green plot adorned with shrubbery, present but a part of the picture. In the centre of this plot is a circular fountain, from which a small group of marble sculpture throws up a stream which falls in a shower of watery diamonds, which glitter in the sun. Upon one side, a rocky embankment, on a part of which another statue, holding a swan, throws up a stream of water, refreshes that part of the view. As you ascend the mount, a broader and more magnificent prospect expands before you. At a distance are seen upon one side, the dim woodlands which skirt the city, the broad Schuylkill, and the glancing water-fall; and on the other, the compact streets, and dense smoke overhanging the city, while the Girard college, a marble pile surrounded on all sides by a Corinthian colonade, exhibits its magnificent proportions in another direction, the whole presenting a panorama of objects which can hardly be exceeded in their imposing effect.

Near, and within immediate view from the Fairmount water-works, is the wire suspension bridge, which was opened for travel in 1842, and was constructed at an expense of fifty thousand dollars. This bridge being the first that has been erected in our own country in which the principles of that species of fabric have been carried out, demands, perhaps, a brief description. Upon each side are five distinct cables, each containing two hundred and sixty strands of wire about one-eighth of an inch in diameter. The cables are six hundred and fifty feet in length, weigh four tons, and are capable of sustaining a weight of about eight hundred tons. The

perpendicular ropes by which each floor-beam is suspended from the cables, are made of small wires, being one inch in diameter, and each of them is capable of sustaining two tons, there being seventeen to each cable. The large cables, passing over iron rollers upon the pillars, tend to equalize the tension, and are themselves fastened around numerous strong iron bars imbedded either in the solid rock, or in a large body of masonry. The cables from which the bridge is suspended, are covered with a peculiar composition, in order to protect them from rust, and the towers of the bridge are composed of blocks of granite which were quarried in New England.

In describing the commerce of Philadelphia, it may perhaps be proper to allude to the character of the merchants who have sustained it with credit for a long period of time. There are doubtless many whose names have never met the public view, exhibiting traits which would command the respect of every good citizen, and there are others who have stood in more prominent relief before the community, who have manifested the evidences of great success in their operations, and the most estimable qualities during long and eventful lives.

In concluding this brief description of the commerce of Philadelphia, we have been influenced by no spirit of exaggeration. In all its improvements, it bears the evidence of a high degree of refinement and civilization. Its elegant blocks of stores bordering the principal streets, are stocked with the choicest products of foreign and domestic industry. The railroads and turnpike-ways which lead from the city, furnish the utmost facilities for locomotion. The streets themselves are well paved and lighted, and the municipal regulations of the city are such as to commend themselves to the sound judgment of honest minds. With all the means of the most substantial prosperity provided by its admirable position and bountiful soil, it has a population who are, for the most part, true to themselves, and to the cause of justice and morality, the sacred rights of life, liberty and property, and to the sovereignty of the laws.

Art. IV.—THE VALUE OF OREGON:

WITH REFERENCE TO THE COMMERCIAL EVILS OF A WAR BETWEEN ENGLAND AND THE UNITED STATES.*

THAT Oregon is rightfully the lawful property of the United States, there can be little or no dispute. Titles derived from arbitrary treaties between nations, each of whose individual title had no foundation but in the arrogance of the government claiming it, can have very little weight or force in staying the progress of a population pressing on the frontier, and bursting over the imaginary barriers fixed by the selfish laws of distant, imperial governments. The government of the United States was formed on the theory of providing a refuge to the oppressed of all nations. When the subtle tyrants of Europe and the oligarchs of England had drawn into the hands of nobles and a few favorites most of the land, and having deprived industry of the power of drawing its own food from the soil, they ground

* The reader is referred to a brief article in the *Merchants' Magazine*, April, 1846, for some statements derived from the venerable Gallatin's letters on the Oregon question, showing the effects of war on our commerce.

down the wages of labor until a vast amount of work became necessary to wring from the monopolist the small quantity of the produce of the earth requisite to sustain life. Then it was that the new world offered to enterprising industry almost a limitless quantity of land, of which each individual could obtain a portion. Availing themselves of this freedom and its attendant blessings, the oppressed of Europe have, for three centuries, poured in a continuous and increasing stream to take possession of this vast heritage. The little points where they first located, as Plymouth, Jamestown, New Amsterdam, &c., threw out each a circle of pioneers pushing into the wilderness, subduing the land, and swelling the population as they went. Soon the impulse from each quarter met that from others, and the whole, with increasing vigor, has pressed on, until the Rio Grande on the south, and the Columbia on the north, form the extremes of an arc whose cord is 2,000 miles in length, and lined with settlers still pushing westward. These people are already in possession of Oregon. Their ploughs turn its sods, their axes level its timber, yet their western march in that direction is sought to be stayed by the same power that drove them from Europe, and gave an impulse to their enterprise. The same oligarchy that monopolizes the lands of England stretches its arm seven thousand miles, and draws a line in an uninhabited country, as within which cultivation must not proceed but for their profit. The effort is futile. No power on earth, nor all the powers of the earth, can check the swelling tide of American population, nor deprive that population of its indomitable enterprise and resistless energy. Every portion of this continent, from the sunny south to the frozen north, will be, in a very few years, filled with industrious and thriving Anglo-Saxons, impatient of restraints upon their industry, and seeking only to make that industry available by rapidity of intercourse and cheapness of transportation. The Canadas are even now, loyal as they undoubtedly are, beginning to chafe at the useless custom-house barriers interposed between their trade and that of the United States. Look on a map, and observe what a tongue of land drops down between New York and Michigan. Produce and goods pass freely between these two states, without delay, without restraint, and without taxes, if it goes round the peninsula of Upper Canada. If it crosses that territory, it is subjected to numerous vexations and charges, and the increase of railroads is daily making those charges and delays more irksome. Why should they exist? There can be no good reason why this distinctive mark of vassalage to the Islands of the North Sea should long be continued. The force of public opinion must soon place Canada on a footing of equality and freedom with the United States. No right exists on either side to compel such an amalgamation of interests, yet it must take place, and all the sooner for a continuance of peace. The Oregon country must, all of it, not only up to 54° 40', but beyond it, far up into what is now exclusively Russian, become peopled by the Anglo-Saxon race, thrown off from the teeming bosom of this glorious Union. This is the irresistible progress of our people. Like the flow of the ocean, it overwhelms all opposition. There is but one mode by which it can be retarded, and that is by abandoning those arts of peace, the steady prosecution of which will alone make the new country necessary or desirable, and engaging in an expensive war. What if England does claim Oregon? Is her claim better than that of the pope, who claimed the whole continent when first discovered? Of what use is an idle claim to territory that she has not the means

to occupy, and which she cannot hold against an advancing multitude on their way to occupy? She has, indeed, a few miserable hunters that yearly toil more to get less of that game, which their trade, aided by advancing civilization, is rapidly exterminating. But permanent settlers she has none, nor can she have. A war would preserve her nominal sovereignty fifty years more, not so much from her ability to hold, as from the inability of the United States to take possession. 300,000 active men, taken from their farms and employments for ten years, would diminish the industrial strength of the country one-half. According to the last census, there were in the United States, 2,725,439 white males, between the ages of 20 and 50; to take a tenth part of these from their labors to keep afoot 270,000 men, which would scarcely be adequate to man the army and navy, would paralyze the whole growth of the Union during the continuance of the war, which would consume, in ten years, at least the whole natural increase of the male population of the country. The consumption of capital would be in a still greater ratio. Not only would there be no accumulation of capital, but it would actually diminish year by year, through a consumption of actual wealth greater than its production. Every year of such a war would postpone the time when we should want Oregon, or be able to use it, five years. The labor of 2,000,000 slaves, employed in raising cotton, would become comparatively valueless. The vast tonnage employed in carrying that cotton to Europe, would be rotting at the docks, while the seamen now employed in bringing wealth into the country, would only be supported at the public expense. The general diminution of profit would paralyze the demand for manufactures. The whole healthy and luxuriant growth of a nation, whose every citizen is actively employed in adding to the general wealth, would shrink and wither in the license and idleness of the camp, and under the influence of a depreciated and worthless paper currency. There would then be no necessity for a "balance of power" on this continent, nor need of the banded despots of Europe to interfere to prevent the growth of the "great republican empire." The consumption of its strength in a fruitless contention for what would be arrived at sooner by peaceful methods, would be the best plan by which a "balance of power" could be established here. The fears which the rapid growth of the United States has engendered in the minds of the governments of Europe have been elicited by the extraordinary vigor applied to the arts of peace. If by any means that strength can be diverted and wasted upon warlike movements, the great cause of those fears will have been removed. The Union will cease to grow; the elements of discord will have become sown; the strong bond of mutual interest that now binds the states together in active and free intercourse, will have become loosened through the decay of that intercourse. The now compact, vigorous, and formidable empire, rapidly overlapping and drawing within its influence the surrounding territories, not to oppress, but enrich, which affords an eminent example of the success of self-government and the blessings that attend it, will have become a disorganized, weak, and despicable assemblage of states, torn by factions and contending interests, and the prey of the intrigues of all the wily despots of Europe. Mr. Calhoun, in the United States Senate, on the 16th March, 1846, clearly and forcibly set forth the evils that would result even from a war successful as the most sanguine could wish.

Valuable as Oregon may be, it certainly is not worth so vast an outlay, simply to enforce prematurely the relinquishment on the part of England

of a nominal title to a country she can never occupy as an imperial government. The whole country is open to the settlement of any and all her people, who will leave behind them their political sympathies, and be contented to occupy the land and enjoy its fruits, with the most perfect freedom.* For the *people* of England to fight for Oregon, is to contend merely for the privilege of sending seven thousand miles for a governor, instead of providing one themselves; a greater absurdity, perhaps, never presented itself for the consideration of the utilitarian, in this peculiarly practical age. The disastrous effects of war would by no means be confined to the United States, or the years of actual hostilities. England would, doubtless, maintain a vigorous and formidable battle; but her commercial supremacy must necessarily perish forever. During the twenty years which ended with the peace of 1815, the inventions of Watt, Arkwright, and Whitney, conferred upon Britain the monopoly of the cotton manufacture. It was not until after the peace that that trade took root in Europe. It has now flourished there, until the goods of Europe are seriously competed with in all the markets of the world. Nevertheless, England, up to this day, *consumes and manufactures 56 per cent of all the cotton produced in the world.* In 1816 she used 90,000,000 lbs., and in 1845, 500,000,000 lbs. The product of the cotton manufacture constitutes *one-half her whole exports*, and occupies and provides bread, little as they get, for 2,000,000 persons. 2,500,000 *black* slaves in the United States, provide the raw material which employs 2,000,000 *white* slaves in England. A state of war would transfer the cotton manufacture to Europe. The black slaves of the United States would continue to raise cotton for Europe, and find ample employ in other agricultural productions. The white slaves of England will have no resource but starvation or emigration. In the year 1842, five of the nations of Europe enacted tariffs avowedly hostile to England, in order to

* The expense of carrying on a war, may be gathered from the amount of English loans during four memorable periods in British history, as follows:—

Seven years' war,.....	from 1755 to 1763.....	£52,100,000
American war,.....	from 1776 to 1784.....	75,000,000
French Revolutionary war,.....	from 1793 to 1802.....	158,500,000
War against Bonaparte,.....	from 1803 to 1814.....	206,300,000

Besides the property tax. In 1813, were raised two loans of twenty-one millions and twenty-two millions; and it deserves to be recorded that a subscription loan to carry on the war against France, was filled up in London in fifteen hours and twenty minutes, to the amount of eighteen millions, Dec. 5, 1796.

It will be seen that the large increase of the national debt of Great Britain has taken place at the periods of the several wars of that country with the continental powers and with America. When we take into view the immense loss of life and loss of property which inevitably accompany war, without any possible resulting good, we can only look upon it as the greatest calamity that can be imposed upon a people by their rulers.

War is called by Erasmus, "the malady of princes." It is computed by able writers that, from the beginning of the world to the present time, no less than 6,860 millions of men have perished in the field of battle, being about seven times as many as the present number of inhabitants in the world.

England spent 65 years in war, and 62 in peace, in the 127 years previous to the close of the last war in 1815. In the war of 1688, she spent 36 millions sterling; in the war of the Spanish succession, 62 millions; in the Spanish war, 54 millions; in the seven years' war, 112 millions; in the American war, 136 millions; in the war of the French revolution, 464 millions; and in the war against Bonaparte, 1,159 millions; thus forming a total expenditure for war, in 127 years, (from the revolution in 1688, to the downfall of Napoleon in 1815,) of 2,023 millions of pounds sterling.

cause their own manufactures to flourish. If England becomes embroiled with the great source whence supplies of raw material are drawn, she must surrender the trade for the advantage of Europe. The cotton and its manufactures must be transported in neutral bottoms. Doubtless with a view to such a result, M. Guizot has declared the intention of strict neutrality on the part of France, in the event of a war with the United States. The common hostility which Europe has very recently displayed in her tariff laws, against the commercial supremacy of England, will become embodied in an avowed neutrality. The great question whether "the flag shall cover the goods," will then come for fixed settlement. The coalition of 1804, dissolved at Copenhagen, must be fought over again, and returning peace find England shorn of her commercial predominance. The United States must, however, sustain a great loss; because her best and surest customer will have become embarrassed. The mighty power which has laid open every quarter of the world to the consumption of cotton goods, the vast capital, boundless enterprise, and resistless energy, which alone have been able to find markets for the continually swelling crops of southern cotton, must become crippled and broken. No nation of Europe can do for the commercial world what England has done for it. She has grown great, it is true, as the result of her own efforts; but the industry of every individual of the commercial world has derived some benefit from the exertions that have made her great. France has 50 per cent more population than Great Britain, yet her trade does not compare with that of the British Isles; the immense resource of capital, as well as enterprise and energy, is wanting. It will be a disastrous day for the commercial world when the power of England is broken, and broken it will be by another war. We regard her military parade as of very little consideration; a nation that cannot feed its own inhabitants in time of peace, or employ its inhabitants without the aid of those nations whom it threatens, is by no means formidable, how great soever may be its display of force. It is the commercial mischiefs, and not the military ones, which may result from a war, that the United States and the cause of human liberty have to dread.

Art. V.—THE COPPER MINES OF LAKE SUPERIOR.

It has been long known that masses of pure copper were scattered through a portion of that vast region which borders Lake Superior, although it is only but recently that the existence of extensive copper mines, in this quarter, has been clearly ascertained. During the period when the jurisdiction of France was extended over that tract of country, which afterwards constituted the old northwestern territory, the copper of the lakes as we are informed by Charlevoix, and other travellers through this portion of the west, was wrought into candlesticks, crosses, and censers, for the use of the Catholic church. As early as 1772, a mass of pure silver was also discovered, imbedded in a fragment of other ore, and was, subsequently, carried across the Atlantic, and deposited in the British Museum. During the following year a mining company was formed, and, a charter having been obtained, mining operations were commenced; but, in conse-

quence of the unsettled condition of affairs between our own country and Great Britain, they were soon relinquished.

After the territory which embraces the mining district had been ceded to our own country, and especially when it came to be included within the organized bounds of the state of Michigan, the attention of enterprising men was more particularly directed to the mineral resources of that section of the west. Geological investigations were accordingly commenced, under the auspices of the state, and were soon extended to the southern shores of Lake Superior, which were included within its territorial boundaries, while the researches of that scientific and excellent man, the late Dr. Houghton, the State Geologist, were directed to this part of the territory. A rock of pure copper, of great size and weight, lying upon the bank of the Ontonagon river, about twenty-five miles from its mouth, which long attracted the attention of travellers, and which indicated the further existence of that metal in this quarter, has since been removed to the city of Washington.

The peculiar character of the region bordering Lake Superior, affords evidence of the existence of extensive mineral resources. It is wild and rocky, of primitive formation, broken by mountain chains, here and there covered with silver firs or pines, furnishing but sparse agricultural advantages, and clearly exhibiting volcanic influences. So barren, indeed, is the territory, of all that furnishes subsistence to man, that it has remained, for ages, a vast solitude, whose silence has been only occasionally broken by an Indian camp, or a fur trading expedition wandering from its ordinary haunts, or the more frequent surges of Lake Superior, which thunder against the bases of its desolate rocks, and which is itself coursed only by a few vessels that are connected with mining operations, or the fur trade.

From recent investigations, however, it is clearly ascertained, that the volcanic region, bordering Lake Superior, abounds in mines of copper, more or less extensive, mingled sometimes with silver, or other ore, and numerous leases have been granted by the general government to individuals, for mining purposes. In accordance with the leases so granted, extensive works have been constructed, and mining operations have been commenced upon a scale of considerable magnitude. Numerous companies have been, moreover, formed for the purpose of more effectively working the mines. Many tons of the copper ore, prepared for smelting, have been transported from the mines to the east, especially to Boston; and every day is developing facts connected with the copper resources of that region, which are calculated to gratify the anticipations of those who have embarked in the enterprise of working them.

Among the companies which have been formed for this purpose, is the *Lake Superior Mining Company*, which is said to be the pioneer in the mining operations of the lakes, and whose enterprises have been commenced on Eagle river. The *Pittsburgh Company*, is located at Copper Harbor. The *New York and Lake Superior Mining Company* have also erected extensive works, and are prosecuting mining operations with success. The *Isle Royale Company* is engaged in the same enterprise. To these may be added: The *Eagle Harbor Company*, at Eagle Harbor; the *Boston Company*, two miles east of Agate Harbor; the *Bohemian Company*, back of Agate Harbor; the *Northwestern Company*, at Grand Maria's Harbor; the *Superior Company*, adjoining Copper Harbor;

the *Albion Mining Company*, three miles south of Eagle river; the *North American Company*, west of Eagle river; and the *Chippewa Mining Company*, upon the Ontonagon and Eagle rivers.

Through the enterprise of these several companies, a large amount of copper ore has been already mined, and a considerable portion has been transported to the eastern states. We are also informed, by a recent journal, that a company has been lately organized, in the city of Boston, with a capital of one hundred and fifty thousand dollars, with which works are to be erected in Chelsea, for the purpose of smelting copper. Although, of course, the veins of copper are of unequal richness, yet it has been discovered that the proportion of pure copper which is yielded by the ore of the mines is so great, as to warrant their being worked, and that, too, with effect. We have before remarked, that silver is found, mingled with the copper ore to some extent; and we learn from a recent letter, which appears to be entitled to some credit, that a mass of native silver, of the size of the thumb, has been discovered among the ore. Large masses of pure copper, some of eight hundred pounds weight, and others weighing sixty pounds, have been found; although it is stated that the reported assays of the copper ores of Lake Superior will be about 25 per cent.*

There have been various computations, exhibiting the proportion of copper to the ore. Dr. C. T. Jackson, having analyzed a portion of the Eagle river ore, arrived at the following result: Analysis of 1,500 grains of the rock—Silver from the metals, 114 grs. 49 pwts.; copper, 27.51; silver from the washed ore, 3.75; copper, 90.35; amount of silver, 118.24; do. of copper, 162.86; refined or pure silver, obtained by a reduction of the chloride, 114.5 grs. The above analysis gives the quantity of silver in a ton of the rock—152.66—valued at \$20 per lb., av. \$3,053 20. A ton of the rock contains 203.57 of copper, valued at 16 cents per lb.; value of one ton of the rock, \$3,036 77.

In a ton of the ore, as delivered by the miner at the pit bank, on Eagle river, we are informed that there is the following per centage:

Of silver,.....	\$87 25
Of copper,.....	42 10

Total,..... \$129 35

Although, probably, many exaggerated statements are put forth for mere purposes of speculation, there seems but little reason for doubting that the copper mines of Lake Superior are of great value. It will be remember-

* The Editor of the New York Tribune has received letters from Copper Harbor and vicinity, which give glowing accounts of the richness of the more recent developments of the mineral region. We certainly have no objection to the truth of these statements, but they are so extraordinary, that we cannot resist the suggestion that they are a little exaggerated. A letter, dated "Superior Copper Co.'s Office, March 6th, 1846," says, "The prospects of Lake Superior were never so bright as now. Enough of pure silver will be raised here this winter, to pay all the expenses incurred since this country was first rented. Childs, at Copper Falls, is getting solid pieces of native silver weighing 24 oz. each." At Eagle river, the same writer says, "they have estimated the product of a single day at ten thousand dollars, or ten barrels of silver, at \$1,000 each." Another letter, dated at Detroit, April 7th, 1846, says, "the Copper Falls Company have struck silver, and thrown out solid lumps of an ounce weight each, of solid silver, and a great many smaller lumps." The Detroit Daily Advertiser notices the receipt of letters from the copper region, which would seem to corroborate these statements. We would, however, caution the too sanguine, and suggest a homely adage, that "all is not gold." &c.

ed, that it is only but recently that the lead mines of the northwest have begun to attract attention, and we already find that a large amount of this product is yielded, not only for consumption within our own territory, but also for exportation to China, and other parts of the world. We now annually import into the United States about one thousand four hundred and eighty-three tons of copper, which, at 16 cents a pound, its ordinary price, yields the sum of \$474,560 90, a sum which is paid to individuals abroad. For the subjoined table of the copper trade of Great Britain, we are indebted to Mr. J. R. St. John, who appears to have examined the mines of Lake Superior with great care, and to whom we are indebted for many other statistical facts on this subject.

Great Britain imported in 1840, 28,757 tons of ore, at \$86 70 per ton, yielding in metal 5,751 tons, which sold for.....	\$2,493,031 90
The amount produced in Great Britain, estimated by Mr. D. La Beche, is about.....	6,000,000 00
Making her copper trade.....	\$8,493,031 90
Exports per annum 17,777 tons, at 16 cts per lb.,.....	\$5,973,072 00
Leaving her to consume.....	\$2,219,969 90

There can be no doubt that the copper mines of England have been a source of great profit to the British empire, and the mines of this character, in the county of Cornwall, have yielded the average amount of fifty-seven thousand five hundred and seventy-three tons of ore each year, the ore yielding five thousand four hundred and seventy-three tons of pure copper. Our own mines will probably produce a much larger proportion of pure copper to the quantity of the ore, and will be thus rendered more productive. The extent to which investments in copper stocks are made abroad, may be inferred from the following table :

ENGLISH COPPER STOCKS.

The following is a list of copper stocks, taken at random from the price current of the London Miners' Journal, of November 15, 1845.*

Shares.	Company.	£Paid.	£Price.	Shares.	Company.	£Paid.	£Price.
235	Andrew and Nangiles, ..	25½	70	1024	Wheal Maria,	1	700
100	Bottallack,	175	400	96	Tresavean,	10	300
114	Charlestown,	—	240	256	Trenow Consols,	—	170
1000	Carn Brea,	15	80	5000	Treleigh Consols,	6	3½
256	Caradon Consols,	45	140	4000	United Hills,	5	5
256	Caradon Copper Mine, ..	4½	6	100	United Mines,	1000	900
1000	Copper Bottom,	1	5	6000	Wicklow Copper,	5	18
512	Fowey Consols,	—	80	128	Wheal St. Andrew,	65	20
244	Grambler and St. Anbyn, ..	—	55	127	Wheal Virgin,	—	20
128	Hallenbeagle,	—	50	256	West Caradon,	40	375
160	Levant,	—	150	3845	West Wheal Jewel,	10½	4
128	Par Consols,	—	500	128	Wheal Providence,	16	120
800	South Towan,	10	1½	256	Wheal Sisters,	22½	78
128	South Caradon,	5	400	256	West Wheal Treasury, ..	12	12
120	Trethellen,	5	100	256	West Wh. Friendship, ..	—	5

* The following synoptical statement relating to the copper mines of England, by Captain Hughes, United States Topographical Corps, is interesting at the present time, when our copper region of Lake Superior is opening such a wide field to American enterprise :

"Elevation of the surface above the level of the sea, from 200 to 300 feet ; depth below the sea, about 1,370 ; total depth of the mine, 1,500 to 1,600 feet. Ores—chiefly yellow copper, variegated copper, red oxide of copper, blue and green carbonate of copper. Tin ore, or oxide of tin, also occurs, but not in very great abundance. Produce of the ores—94 per centum of fine copper, average produce in 100 parts of ore. Depth of the

From causes which are now in progress, there seems but little reason to doubt that the mineral resources of Lake Superior will be rapidly developed. It is an enterprise new in our own country. Although Providence, by denying the country a fertile soil, has deprived it of the position of agricultural advantages, it has, nevertheless, granted it counterbalancing advantages in the teeming abundance of mineral wealth. It is likewise probable that, with the advancement of mining operations in that region, other and more valuable minerals may be discovered. Agate, cornelian, and other minerals of value, are already found in abundance, scattered among the rocks. The enterprises of individuals have, moreover, been zealously directed to that quarter, and numerous steamboats and vessels have been recently constructed for the purpose of prosecuting trade with that part of the country. With the completion of a ship canal around the falls of St. Mary, an enterprise which has long been projected, and which will unite the chain of lakes in a continuous field of uninterrupted commerce, that magnificent tract of wilderness and waters will be brought more directly within the public view; and the copper mines of Lake Superior, aided by such a result, will, we doubt not, eventually supply the country with this useful product, and also furnish a large amount for exportation.

ART. VI.—THE PROPOSED MODIFICATION OF THE TARIFF.

A CONSIDERATION OF THE MAXIMS CONTAINED IN THE SECRETARY'S ANNUAL REPORT ON THE FINANCES OF THE GOVERNMENT.

It was feared by many who are ardently attached to the principles of free trade, that the Secretary would not boldly advocate so great a change in the principles and details of the present tariff. Whatever his real opinions might be, many were apprehensive that the powerful influence of the manufacturing interests would deter him from advocating a change in a policy that has built up so many splendid fortunes during the last three years, and in the support of which are to be found a large number of the most wealthy capitalists of the Union.

It is a fact that, among the most intelligent free traders, you find many who assert that their principles, however true, are as yet unpopular in the United States; that years of discussion and experience are required to popularise truth on the tariff question. There is, undoubtedly, much truth in the assertion. But the discussion of the tariff question, during the last few years, has done more to enlighten public opinion respecting a true system of taxation, than all preceding discussions. There was, during the last presidential campaign, in the discussions both of the press

principal shafts—Woolf's engine shaft, 248 fathoms; Pearce's engine shaft, 275 fathoms. Quantity of water raised, from 2,000 to 3,000 gallons per minute. Power employed in drainage, 9 steam-engines. Average annual expense of drainage, £12,700, (\$63,500.) Quantity of ore annually produced, 16,400 tons of copper ore, and a few tons of tin ore. Produce in metal, 1,517 tons of fine copper, and a little tin. Total returns or value of the produce in metal, £119,800, (\$599,000.) Total cost of mines, £98,500, (\$492,500.) Clear profit to the proprietors, £21,000 (\$105,000) per annum. Amount of capital invested, £75,000, (\$375,000.) Interest on capital invested, 280 per centum, after paying back the original capital. Number of men employed, about 2,500, of whom 1,450 are employed under ground. Manner in which the ores are disposed of—sold to the smelting companies, and smelted by them at Swansea, in South Wales."

and in the political assemblages of the people, a degree of boldness, fervor, and ability, that had never been witnessed before. The manifest inequality and oppression of the present tariff, had aroused the people to reflection and action. It is our opinion that the enactment of the present tariff has not at all retarded the adoption of a just system of taxation for the support of the general government. A nation, in order to enact wise and just laws, requires, generally, to feel the oppression of unwise and unjust ones. Truth, in matters of legislation, is usually arrived at after having experienced the evil effects of its antagonist.

The Secretary, in his report, has not, as we believe, advanced a single step beyond public opinion, in the measures he recommends. He does not, however, lag behind the prevailing sentiment of the time. The popular sentiment is, that the indirect system of taxation for the support of the general government will be tolerated, at least for a time. But the taxes must be so levied, or the duties so assessed, that the burdens will be as light as possible, and so as to draw an amount from each tax-payer, as nearly as practicable, in proportion to the ability of each to pay, and the benefit each receives. Or, which leads to the same result, no article must be subject to a higher rate of duty than that which will produce the greatest amount of revenue; and all discriminations below this higher rate, by which one article is taxed higher than another, must be for revenue, and to equalize, as much as possible, the burdens of the tax among the different grades of wealth.

The doctrines advocated by the Secretary, are daily becoming more popular with the people, and no retrograde movement is likely to take place. The principles of perfect free trade, an entire removal of the shackles that bind and restrict our foreign commerce, is not, as yet, demanded by the people. The public mind is, however, approximating to that state with much greater rapidity than many of its most enthusiastic advocates suppose. The perfect freedom of our internal commerce, that binds together the twenty-eight states of the Union, has produced the happiest results. Steam-power, and the recent application of the wonderful power of electricity in communicating intelligence, are destined to facilitate the period when the different nations of the earth will become neighbors, and when the policy of restricting the exchange of each others' surplus produce will be considered as proof of a barbarous age, when the true principles of commercial exchange, or the true interests of nations, were little understood.

The Secretary adopts certain principles of a fundamental nature, upon which the reasoning of the report is based. They are as follows :—

" 1st. That no more money should be collected than is necessary for the wants of the government, economically administered.

" 2d. That no duty be imposed on any article above the lowest rate which will yield the largest amount of revenue.

" 3d. That, below such rate, discrimination may be made, descending in the scale of duties, or, for imperative reasons, the article may be placed in the list of those free from all duty.

" 4th. That the maximum revenue duty should be imposed on luxuries.

" 5th. That all minimums, and all specific duties, should be abolished, and ad valorem duties substituted in their place—care being taken to guard against fraudulent invoices and under-valuation, and to assess the duty upon the actual market value.

" 6th. That the duties should be so imposed as to operate as equally as possible throughout the Union, discriminating neither for nor against any class or section."

These general maxims are sound ; though the first and second are not expressed in terms the most appropriate, and the sixth is not adhered to by the Secretary in his argument.

The maxim, that no more money should be collected than is necessary for an economical support of the government, standing by itself, considered without any reference to the other maxims, amounts to nothing. The report itself is an argument that the present tariff does not violate this maxim ; that it does not produce more revenue than is required to support the government, though the strictest economy be observed. The estimates of the Secretary, both of receipts and expenditures, for the years 1846 and '47, make the expenditures to exceed the receipts ; reducing the balance in the treasury at the close of the last fiscal year, ending June 30th, 1845, of \$7,658,306.22, to \$4,332,441.07, at the close of the fiscal year ending June 30th, 1847. The advocates of the present tariff may, therefore, with perfect propriety, insist that it does not violate this maxim ; that no more money is collected under the present tariff than is required for an economical administration of the government. There is not a single advocate of the present tariff, or of any tariff designed for protection, who would object to this maxim. If the present tariff produces too much revenue, its friends would say, increase the rates of duty so as to prohibit importation to a greater extent, and thus lessen the revenue to the wants of the government. If too little revenue is collected under the present tariff, its friends would say, tax the free list, and procure more. So it will be seen that this maxim can be adhered to strictly, without a change in the present tariff : or it is as applicable to a high tariff as to a low one.

The phrase "economical administration of the government," has no definite meaning. One man may think it good economy to expend forty millions of dollars annually, another thirty, and another but twenty millions. One might think it good economy to expend millions annually on works of internal improvement, and millions more to increase the army and navy ; while another would consider these expenditures wasteful and extravagant.

It would have been better to have expressed the maxim thus :—

No more money ought to be collected than is required to defray the necessary expenses of the government ; and this necessary sum should be raised in such a manner as to draw as little as possible from the pockets of the people, except what goes into the treasury of the nation.

Almost every writer on political economy, who has attained any celebrity, agrees to this maxim. Adam Smith expresses the latter clause of the maxim in these words : "Every tax ought to be so levied as to take out and keep out of the pockets of the people as little as possible over and above what it brings into the treasury of the nation."

All tariffs, or indirect systems of taxation, must violate, to some extent, this maxim, except the duties are laid exclusively on articles not produced in the country, the government of which imposes the duty. A duty laid on tea and coffee, and other articles not grown or manufactured in the United States, would be in harmony with this maxim. Every dollar raised upon the importation of these articles would go into the treasury. But a duty imposed upon the manufactures of iron, wool, or cotton, taxes the people a certain amount for revenue, and a certain amount for the benefit of those whose capital is invested in producing the home articles, similar to those on which the duty is imposed.

Suppose the people of the United States should consume annually \$100,000,000 worth of cotton goods, and that the one-half should be imported, and the other half produced at home. In this case, a duty of 20 per cent on the \$50,000,000 worth imported, would bring into the treasury \$10,000,000 revenue. But this amount would be but a moiety of that drawn from the pockets of the people. The duty would enable the domestic producer to demand at least 20 per cent more for the \$50,000,000 worth produced at home, making \$10,000,000 drawn from the pockets of the people in the shape of a bounty to the domestic manufacturers. Thus it is seen that, in order to get \$10,000,000 into the treasury, we tax the people \$20,000,000!

If, in raising our town, county, or state taxes, or if a system of direct taxation was resorted to for the support of the general government, and the tax-gatherer, after he had collected the amount each individual was assessed, should convert to his own use the one-half of the whole, not an individual would be found in the whole community but would remonstrate against the fraud, and insist that the vengeance, or rather the justice of the law, should be meted out to the transgressor. Yet the people of the United States tolerate the perversion of the maxim we have quoted; and more than \$1,000,000,000 have already been paid into the national treasury under a system that has drawn from the pockets of the people, at the lowest estimate, more than \$1,500,000,000 more to go into the pockets of the wealthy manufacturers of the United States!

Can this evil be remedied without abandoning the indirect system of taxation? Not unless you could raise sufficient revenue by taxing, exclusively, articles of importation not grown or made in this country. A tax levied, exclusively, upon such imports of which similar articles are not produced in the United States, would, unquestionably, be less burdensome to the people. If the necessary revenue could be raised by taxing such imports, it would be preferable, in point of economy at least, to a system that taxes the people millions annually, to increase the profits of particular interests. Such a system of taxation would not tax the people a dollar that would not go into the treasury of the nation. It is true the exactions under such a system would not be in proportion to the ability to pay. No system of taxation but a direct one, demanding from each tax-payer a certain rate per cent on the assessed value of his property, can operate equitably upon all classes of the people. Yet, as much equality, in this respect, would result from a system that taxed, exclusively, articles of non-production, as results from the present system of raising nearly the whole revenue from such imports of which we have corresponding domestic articles.

An objection, however, might be urged against a system of discrimination that would tax, exclusively, such imports of which we do not produce corresponding articles. If we deny the right to discriminate in favor of the home article, it might be asked with what propriety we claimed the right to discriminate against it. If you cannot discriminate for protection, can you justly discriminate against it? To place higher duties on such articles as we do not produce at home, or to tax such articles exclusively, may be called by some a discrimination against the home producer. You cannot levy the taxes, under our present false system, so as to be the least burdensome to the people, without being accused of a design to destroy the industry of the country.

But is it a fact, that if the duties were exclusively laid on such imports

as we do not produce corresponding articles, it would be unjust to any particular branch of domestic industry? Would we, by laying the duties exclusively on such imports, discriminate against any branch of home industry? We think not. A refusal to tax *all* imports of which we grow or make a similar domestic article, is, certainly, dealing equally with every class of domestic producers. It is not discriminating either for or against any branch of home industry where all are treated alike. Refuse to tax that portion of our imports of which we produce a similar article, and each branch of home industry will prosper in proportion to the genius, talents, and natural advantages, possessed by those engaged in it. It appears clear to our mind, that if the necessary amount of revenue could be raised by taxing such imports of which we do not produce similar articles, the burden of the indirect system of taxation would be one-half less than it now is, or would be under any arrangement of the tariff that would draw the chief part of the revenue from imports of which we produce corresponding domestic articles.

It follows, then, that if you cannot raise the whole revenue from this cheaper or less burdensome method, you should, at least, endeavor to raise by it as large an amount as possible. You should, at least, place the maximum revenue duties on such imports as are not produced at home, and raise the balance of the necessary revenue by a lower or minimum rate on such imports of which we do not produce similar articles.

The second maxim laid down by the Secretary in his report, is—

“That no duty be imposed on any article above the lowest rate which will yield the largest amount of revenue.”

This is an important maxim, theoretically sound, though it cannot be practically carried out in its fullest sense. If this maxim could be practically applied, that is, if it were possible to ascertain that particular rate of duty on each article of importation that would produce the greatest amount of revenue, the maxim would be of much greater importance than it is. But it is not possible to ascertain such a rate of duty. Let us allude to some of the difficulties that prevent the practical application of this maxim: What is that particular rate of duty on any given article of importation, that will produce the largest amount of revenue? We will illustrate the difficulty of ascertaining such a rate of duty by selecting for that purpose a single article of importation—say a certain description of woollen goods: If a yard of broadcloth can be imported and afforded in our market at \$2, and the same quantity of domestic goods cannot be afforded less than \$3 a yard, what would be the rate of duty on the imported article that would produce the largest amount of revenue?

In the first place, we have obviated one difficulty, in supposing the cost both of the foreign and domestic article. It requires an intimate knowledge of the process of manufacture, and the advantages and disadvantages possessed by two trading countries, in the manufacture of a certain article, to enable one to judge, with any degree of accuracy, of the difference in the cost of manufacturing the article in the two countries. This difficulty being obviated by the supposition, the next is to state the rate of duty in the supposed case, that will bring the most revenue. A duty of one dollar a yard would equalize the cost of the imported and the domestic article, and thus bring them into our market upon terms of fair competition. But would one dollar be the rate that would produce the greatest amount of revenue? What evidence have we that a duty of one dollar a yard would produce as

much revenue as one of twenty, forty, sixty, eighty, or any other number of cents less than one dollar? The amount of revenue that will accrue under any rate of duty, depends upon the quantity imported. Now, who can state the extent which the importation of the foreign article would decrease, and the consumption of the domestic article increase, under a duty of one dollar a yard? Also, how much would the ability of the consumers to purchase, be lessened by a duty which is equal to one-half of the cost of the imported article? It is generally admitted that the cheaper an article of necessity can be had, the greater will be its consumption. A duty of fifty cents a yard, in the supposed case, would destroy home competition. But would the increased importation that would result—partly from driving the domestic article out of the market, and partly from a reduction in the price of the article—make up, or more than make up the deficiency occasioned by the reduction in the rate? And, if it could be ascertained that a duty of fifty cents a yard would produce more revenue than a duty of one dollar a yard, we would then inquire whether a duty of fifty cents a yard would produce more than one of forty, or sixty cents?

All these questions, and many others of equal difficult solution, must be answered definitely, before that particular rate of duty which will yield the greatest amount of revenue can be ascertained. To say that a duty of twenty cents a yard will produce more revenue than one of thirty, or fifty, implies that we know the extent that the lower duty will increase the importation of the article, and the higher duty decrease it. It also implies that we know the extent that the lower and the higher duty will increase or decrease the consumption of the domestic rival.

We might suggest many other difficulties that would render futile all attempts to ascertain the maximum rate of duty on an article of importation; but it is not necessary. We have merely thrown out these few observations to show the importance of observing great caution in stating a maxim upon which an argument is to be based. The maxim we are considering, aside from the impracticability of its application, would lead to the supposition that there may be more than one rate of duty put upon an article that will bring the greatest amount of revenue. It says, "no rate of duty must be imposed on any article above the *lowest* rate that will bring the largest amount of revenue." The term, "lowest," is superfluous. There can be but one rate of duty that will bring the greatest amount of revenue. Whatever that rate may be, no other rate will produce as much. If the greatest amount of revenue that will accrue on a given article of importation be \$10,000, and the rate of duty that will produce that sum be 20 per cent, you can produce any sum less than \$10,000 by two different rates of duty, the one less, and the other greater than 20 per cent; but no other rate will produce as much as \$10,000. It is, therefore, erroneous to suppose that there can be more than one rate of duty on an article, that will bring the largest amount of revenue. The following will better express the idea intended to be conveyed by the maxim:

No article shall be subject to a higher rate of duty than that which will yield the largest amount of revenue.

But the Secretary by no means recommends the adoption, in all cases, of such rates as will yield the largest amount of revenue.

"Nor," says the report, "should maximum revenue duties be imposed on all articles, for this would yield too large an amount of revenue."

The Secretary suggests, that maximum revenue duties only should be

imposed upon luxuries ; and that the balance of the revenue required, be raised by adopting different rates of duty on different articles of necessity, below the maximum rates.

We have already alluded to some of the difficulties which prevent the discovery of the maximum rate, or the rate that will yield the most revenue. If it is proper to institute a comparison between two impossibilities, we should say that the greater impossibility is to ascertain the particular rate of duty on each article of importation, below the maximum rate, that will bring a certain amount of revenue, or as much revenue as is necessary for the support of the government. If you cannot ascertain the rate that will produce the most revenue, you cannot ascertain the one that will produce a given amount, or the amount that may be required. You cannot measure trade by any rule of proportion between the different rates of duty, or the amount of taxes, that restrict it. No one can tell the amount of revenue required for a series of years. Or, if the wants of the government could be definitely stated, no one could state the particular rate of duty, on each article of importation, that would produce the required amount. Periodical changes in the revenue laws are an inevitable result of the system itself. No human foresight, mercantile experience, or political sagacity, can prevent the necessity of these changes, so long as the indirect system of taxation exists.

We may, however, use the experience we have acquired, from the operation of the various tariff laws that have been enacted, with a view to approximate to the principles of the maxim we are considering. The Secretary, in his report, has shown, conclusively, that the present tariff is far above the revenue standard ; that it is too high for revenue ; that, in many cases, they destroy revenue.

The third maxim laid down by the Secretary, is :

“That below such rate, (the maximum rate,) discrimination may be made, descending in the scale of duties, or, for imperative reasons, the article may be placed in the list of those free from all duty.”

The propriety of discriminating, or adopting different rates of duty on different articles of importation, will not be doubted by any who have given the subject the slightest reflection. The legitimate objects in discriminating, are to preserve the revenue standard inviolate, and to equalize, as much as practicable, the burdens of taxation among the different grades of wealth. Without adopting different rates of duties, on different articles of importation, the burdens of taxation would be greatly increased. The same rate of duty on two different articles of importation, might prohibit the importation of the one, and throw the whole burden of the tax on the other. One uniform rate of duty would necessarily be, on some articles, greatly above that rate which will yield the greatest amount of revenue ; while on others it would be much below it. Discrimination, therefore, becomes imperative in all tariffs based upon revenue principles. Further illustrations on this part of the maxim are unnecessary, as no one denies the propriety of discrimination ; and the only difference of opinion, as regards discrimination, is, in relation to the legitimacy of the objects to be accomplished by it. The friends of the present tariff contend, that the most important object of discriminating duties, is to afford protection to certain branches of industry. They do not limit the power, or the expediency, to discriminate to those rates of duty below those which will yield the largest amount of revenue ; but are willing to transcend the revenue limit,

and thus make protection, instead of revenue, the principal object of the duty. On the contrary, the doctrine of the Secretary, in the second maxim, is, that in no case ought the rate of duty to be above that which will yield the most revenue ; and, in the maxim we are now considering, he holds that discriminations below this rate, "descending in the scale of duties," may be made.

We now come to consider the latter clause of the third maxim : "For imperative reasons, the article may be placed in the list of those free from duty."

We agree with the doctrine expressed in this part of the maxim. But what is meant by "imperative reasons ?" If a *good* reason can be given why an article should be admitted duty free, we say, admit it free. If an article can be, and is produced in this country, as cheap, or cheaper, than it can be imported, and produced to an extent to satisfy all demand for it, a duty levied upon it would produce little or no revenue ; consequently, such an article might, with perfect propriety, be transferred to the free list. Raw cotton, and many other agricultural products, may, for this reason, be admitted free. Whether such a reason may be termed an imperative one, or not, we deem it a *good* one. It is the height of folly to levy duties where they produce no revenue. The report says :

"It is believed that sufficient means can be obtained, at the lowest revenue duties, on the articles now subjected to duty ; but, if Congress desire a larger revenue, it should be procured by taxing the free articles, rather than transcend, in any case, the lowest revenue duties. It is thought, however, that, without exceeding the limit in any case, an adequate revenue will be produced, and permit the addition to the free list of salt and guano."

We consider this an abandonment of at least one of the fundamental principles upon which the Secretary bases his argument. Tea and coffee are imported, under the present tariff, free of duty ; and the Secretary is of the opinion that sufficient revenue can be raised by adopting the lowest revenue rates of duty on such articles as are dutiable under the present tariff ; and that salt and guano, now dutiable, may be added to the free list.

There are not, in the whole catalogue of imports, two articles that could be taxed with greater propriety than tea and coffee. Every principle of the report proclaims them proper articles to bear a duty ; yet the Secretary suggests that they remain in the free list ! What is the "imperative reason" for transferring tea and coffee to the free list ? The Secretary has given none ; he can give none. Is the object of their free admission to lessen the burdens of the poor ? Do they partake of the character of necessities of life in a greater degree than cottons or woollens ? In short, do you relieve the industrious portion of the community by admitting tea and coffee free ? To all of these interrogatories we answer in the negative. There is no "imperative reason," no good reason, not even the shadow of a reason, for their free admission. To admit them free is a violation of the revenue principle in adjusting the tariff ; it is to afford protection. It creates a necessity for higher duties on the woollen and cotton imports, the iron, sugar, &c. ; articles of far greater necessity to the laboring classes of the community. A moderate revenue duty on tea and coffee would bring, annually, at least three millions of dollars into the treasury ; and that without materially lessening the quantity imported, or depriving

the consumers of the ability to consume these generally considered luxuries of civilized life. For these reasons, and many others that we might suggest, we differ with the Secretary in the suggestion that the free list in the present tariff be continued. If tea and coffee are to be continued in the free list, let it be considered as a concession to the protectionists. Let the cause of their free importation be understood by the people, who have to bear the burden of taxation. We believe, however, an attempt will be made, and a successful one, too, to have a moderate revenue duty placed upon these articles.

The fourth maxim, "That the maximum revenue duties be imposed on luxuries," we agree with, and consider it as opposed to the free admission of tea and coffee.

The fifth maxim is against all specific and minimum duties, and in favor of ad valorem duties. The reasoning of the report in favor of this change is conclusive, and we heartily concur with the views of the Secretary in this part of the report.

The sixth maxim asserts that the duties should be assessed so as to operate as equally as possible throughout the Union; that no discriminations against a particular class of people, or against a particular section of the Union, should be allowed.

This is a sound maxim, though not adhered to strictly in the suggestions of the report. The admission of tea and coffee free, we think a discrimination in favor of the protected interests, the cotton, woollen, and iron interests in particular sections of the Union. The admission of salt free of duty, is a discrimination against the manufacturers of salt in the states of New York and Virginia, as much so as it would be discriminating against the cotton manufacturers of the Eastern States to admit cotton imports free. Salt is a necessary of life; so is cotton and woollen goods. A moderate revenue duty on salt would not be more burdensome to the mass of our people than the duty on iron, or cotton and woollen manufactures. Therefore, the principle that will not admit of the duties being so laid as to discriminate against any particular section of the Union, would certainly be violated by a discrimination against the manufacturers of salt in the states of New York and Virginia. We believe about one-half of the salt consumed by our people is manufactured in these two states, principally in New York. Those whose capital is invested in the manufacture of salt, have the same right to claim a share in the benefits of our indirect system of taxation as those whose capital is invested in the manufactures of cotton or iron; particularly as it is evident that a moderate revenue duty on salt would not be more burdensome to the mass of the people than the same duty would be on cotton and woollen goods. If a portion of the necessary revenue is raised on salt, there is less to be raised on cottons, woollens, iron, and sugar; consequently, the burdens of the people would not be increased, all interests would be equally benefited, and no section of the Union would suffer from an unjust discrimination.

There are many important suggestions and valuable truths in the report, that we have not alluded to. Our object was simply to consider the fundamental maxims upon which the argument of the report is founded.

In conclusion, we consider the report one of the ablest that has ever emanated from the Treasury Department. For solidity and clearness of argument, it certainly has not been excelled by any previous report or public document on the same subject. Not only are the principles upon which

the report is founded, true, but the reasoning of the Secretary, in support of his theories, is exceedingly forcible. He has promulgated a greater number of important truths, and expressed them in more forcible language, than any of his predecessors.

A. J.

NOTE.—Since the above was written, the Chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means has introduced a Tariff Bill, in which salt is retained in the dutiable class of imports. This is right. Tea and coffee are, however, to remain free of duty, unless there is a deficiency of revenue, when they are to be subject to a duty of 10 per cent. This is wrong. We hope there is sufficient intelligence in our national legislature to amend the bill by transferring tea and coffee to the dutiable list of imports; and, if too much revenue is produced, lower the duties on some of the imports of greater necessity.

A. J.

ART. VII.—THE PROPOSED DUTY ON FOREIGN BOOKS.

TO FREEMAN HUNT, Esq., *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine:*

DEAR SIR—I am very happy to learn, from your letter, that you are so much interested in the proposed changes in the tariff, relative to duties on books, and that you are decidedly in favor of a more liberal policy than has hitherto been pursued by our government in this important matter. This was, indeed, to be expected from your position, and from the general tone of your able and influential journal. It is quite disheartening to notice the indifference with which even the scholars of our country have viewed the proposal and adoption of measures so detrimental to the interests of learning, and derogatory to our literary reputation. Our policy, even under the tariff of 1842, is more illiberal than that of any other nation in Christendom. Nay, our duties on books are more than four times as high as those levied in any other nation in the world, excepting Great Britain, and, perhaps, some of the Italian States. We have not, either, the same necessity for resorting to heavy taxation of literature, which Great Britain has. We are not compelled to oppress any interest, in order to raise a revenue for the expenses of the government. Neither have we the same apology for our illiberality which Great Britain might urge for hers. We do not possess, like her, large libraries, public and private, the accumulations of centuries. We have no British Museum, for the use of our scholars, receiving the unstinted patronage of the government. With all our boasted intelligence, there is no government in the civilized world, which affords so little direct encouragement to learning, and which throws in its way so many obstacles. I will not believe, however, that the policy of our government, in this particular, is irretrievably barbarous. The fact that great numbers of prominent men, of both political parties, are wishing for better things, is an omen of good. I had hoped that the predominance of a party, pledged to free trade, would secure to us the desired result. But, so small, materially speaking, is the importance of the importation of foreign books, that it has demanded no special attention, and the same principles which have been applied to other articles of merchandise, have been swept indiscriminately over them. This is deeply to be regretted. Free trade in literature should be discussed on its own merits, and not be mingled up with general considerations of protection and revenue. Books may certainly be placed in a different category. The arguments applicable to them are quite peculiar.

Books have justly been termed the raw material of all science and art,

and the chief instrument of social improvement. Without them, we recede towards barbarism. The more of them we have, the more rapidly do we advance in all that renders a people truly great and prosperous. The question of import duties on other articles, is merely one of dollars and cents. Its bearing upon the higher interests of the community is only indirect. But taxes upon books, not only take so much money from pockets the poorest filled, but, by acting as a partial prohibition, they check the progress of science and the arts, of intellectual and social culture, and, in short, of everything which tends to elevate a nation above a horde of heathen and savages.

If we prohibit the introduction of tea and coffee, what degree of injury does the community sustain? It is simply deprived of two agreeable luxuries. If, instead of prohibiting them entirely, we tax them so heavily as greatly to diminish the quantity imported, we restrict them more to the rich, and lessen the enjoyments of the poor. But in neither case would the material interests of the community be greatly injured.

On the other hand, if we prohibit books, we shut out the light of science, and spread over the land the darkness of ignorance. If we subject them to duties which operate to diminish the number imported, the consequences that follow differ only in degree—not in kind.

But the appeal is not weaker to those who regard only the material prosperity of the country, than to those who are particularly interested in her literary progress. We are a young nation, struggling manfully for pre-eminence. No argument can be necessary to prove that this pre-eminence can only be gained through the mighty aid of science. Yet science is taught by books, and mostly by books written and printed abroad, and not reprinted here. What could our engineers, our architects, our professional men, do without foreign books? Our people have derived from God, and from the exigencies in which they have been placed, a remarkable skill in the application of scientific principles to practical purposes. Shall we deprive them of the books which teach these principles? Is it not worth relinquishing thirty thousand dollars a year for the sake of training up more Fultons and Whitneys? It is but a paltry sum at the best, which we receive from duties on books, and most inadequate to compensate for the blighting influences of such duties.

I am aware that many advocate duties on books, not for raising revenue, but to protect American authors and publishers. It is singular that anything should be said in this connection about authors. What protection can they need? They certainly wish for none against foreign learning, but rather against domestic ignorance, which that learning might dispel. Create a love of reading and study in the community, and you encourage authors. In no way can this be done so effectually as by encouraging the free introduction of books. By placing heavy duties on books, Congress not only does not protect our authors, but discourages and oppresses them. Books, which other men, in other countries, and by-gone days, have written, and which are not, and cannot be reprinted here, are the tools with which they must work. These books do not exist in the country. All our libraries combined, would not furnish the books needed by a truly learned author, in any one of the great departments of human knowledge. Thus, poor authors are condemned to mediocrity, or compelled to cross the ocean, in order to avail themselves of the literary treasures of nations which pursue, in this respect, a wiser and more enlightened policy. And

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yet, forsooth, we talk of protecting authors by perpetuating this state of things. There is, indeed, in every country, a class of men who arrogate to themselves the name of authors, and who are, in the language of another, "for the most part knaves and drudges, without talent or learning of any sort, save that of transmuting and adulterating the labors of others, and disguising their own rascality. Such persons fasten like leeches on any new work of talent, research, and industry; they forthwith announce some system, compilation, or abridgment of the same sort, every idea and statement of which is stolen, and then publish their spurious rubbish at a low price, advertise it as being the best work upon the subject, and find numbers of newspaper writers ready to puff off and eulogize their disinterested and meritorious labors!" Such are the only *authors* who can be benefited by duties on books.

The effect of a tariff upon American publishers—excepting such of them as are engaged in the reprinting of English books—is the same as upon authors. It is, however, those republishers of English books whom it is deemed necessary to protect. Facts show, however, beyond the possibility of denial, that such protection is utterly needless. No man who is acquainted with the publishing business in England and the United States, can doubt that, without a tariff, our publishers can reprint all really popular English works—and no others are ever reprinted—so as to defy all competition from the English publishers. Nothing but an international copyright law could permanently injure the business of republishing popular English works.

But were the facts otherwise, how far would the necessity of protection extend? Not certainly beyond those books which are actually republished, and these are not more, probably, than two hundred a year, all told, and all of them English books. Can it protect our publishers to lay duties on French, or German, or Italian books, or old books in all languages, which they do not and cannot reprint? You might as well lay a tax upon tea to protect corn-growers, or a duty upon Egyptian mummies to protect body-snatchers. Nay, better: for the free introduction of all works which they do not reprint, so far from injuring, is directly and strongly advantageous to our publishers, inasmuch as it tends to cultivate a literary taste in the community, and this taste is the very condition of their existence.

If we must have a tariff upon books, none can be framed on wiser principles than that of 1842. It places the highest duties upon English books, the only class upon which the shadow of a claim for protection exists. It places higher duties upon this class of books when bound than when unbound, thus intending to throw work into the hands of our binders. It imposes lower duties upon books in Greek and Latin, which are not likely, for the present at least, to interfere with our own productions. It places the very low duty of five cents per volume upon books in foreign living languages, upon reports of legislative committees, &c., and upon all books that have been printed more than forty years, while it allows to literary institutions the privilege of importing books duty free.

The project of the Secretary of the Treasury, to lay a duty of 20 per cent, *ad valorem*, on all books, and withhold the privilege of exemption hitherto enjoyed by literary institutions, had it been adopted, would have been prohibitory of the classes of books favored by the tariff of 1842, while it diminished so little the tariff upon English books, as to afford scarcely any additional inducement for their importation. Its effect, there-

fore, would have been to diminish the revenue from this source, while it would have proved disastrous to the literary interests of the nation.

The Committee of Ways and Means have, it is said, modified the proposal of the Secretary, by diminishing the duty to 10 per cent, retaining, however, the uniform *ad valorem* principle, and pertinaciously withholding from literary institutions the privilege of introducing the books which they need, without duty. This project is obviously better, or rather, less atrocious, than the other. But it still preserves nearly all the objectionable features of the Secretary's plan. It reduces, by one-half, the duty on English books. It will therefore, without doubt, tend to increase the quantity imported, and, perhaps, prevent the revenue from books from being lessened. But it doubles the duty charged by the tariff of '42, on all the other classes enumerated above, and it was already as high as they would bear; nay, 5 per cent higher than a wise policy could justify. It besides grants no exemption to literary institutions. The grounds of this latter measure it is difficult to imagine. It has, indeed, been said that the privilege granted to literary institutions has been abused. But by whom? Not, certainly, by those institutions themselves. It is hard that they should be made to suffer for the deeds of others. Besides, this abuse, if it exists, is one which has a ready and easy remedy, without injury to these institutions. It is well known that most of our colleges and public libraries are poor, supported entirely by charity. What unreasonable and Vandal rapacity, to seize upon one-fifth or one-tenth of all they can beg, in order to appropriate it to government purposes!

But further, *ad valorem* duties on all books excepting new books, are practically impossible. When first published, books have a regular price, which it is not difficult to ascertain. This price, however, is seldom retained more than three or four years. They then, generally, diminish in market value, and the greater part fall to little more than their worth as waste paper, while some become scarce, and command prices two, three, ten, or a hundred times that originally affixed to them. Now, if these books were few in number, it might be possible to keep the run of them, and know, with a good degree of accuracy, their real value. But the number of different volumes which have been printed, has been estimated at about three millions; and who can tell which of the three millions would first be presented at the custom-house? No custom-house officer, and no bookseller in the United States, is competent to judge of the real value of one-half of the books annually imported. They have no regular market value. Different copies of the same book, in equally good condition, are, every day, sold in Europe, at prices varying all the way between the value of the book as waste paper, and its original publication price. Let it not be said that such books can possess but little intrinsic merit, and consequently, that it cannot be very detrimental to prohibit them. The fact is just the reverse. The very books of which we stand in perishing need, may, by skilful agents, now be bought up in Europe, at trifling prices. I mean, particularly, large works published in series. These works, if ordered, may be very expensive; but if purchased when they are accidentally thrown upon the market, may be procured for a mere song. Why not allow us the privilege of getting them before it is forever too late? I have heard people talk of what they call a home valuation of books, by which they mean, if they mean anything, to estimate the value at what it would cost to produce a book of the same size in this country; that is, every

folio shall be estimated at so much, every quarto at so much, every octavo at so much, &c. But this would not be an *ad valorem* tariff, but a specific one, of so much per volume. Why not say so, then, and not leave us in perplexity, by talking about an *ad valorem* tariff? We should then know, at least, what to depend on. But with an *ad valorem* tariff upon old books, we should not know what fate to expect. If we invoiced our books honestly, we should be in danger of losing many of them upon the suspicion of an attempt to defraud the revenue, and on others, called scarce books, we should have to pay fifty times as much as a man who had no conscience about presenting false invoices. But it is absurd to talk about a "home valuation" of books, which could not possibly be produced here. What is the home valuation of Ersch and Gräber's Encyclopædia, of the Memoirs of the French Academy, or of the great French work on Egypt? Such books could not be produced here. It must be remembered that another element besides printing and paper, enters into the value of a book. In short, to any one at all acquainted with the book business in Europe, it must appear just as absurd to talk about an *ad valorem* duty on old books, as to talk of an *ad valorem* duty on emigrants.

With these views, I cannot but feel the importance of united and vigorous efforts on the part of literary men in all sections of the country, and of all political parties, to avert a policy so calamitous to the cause of letters in our land as that with which we are threatened. The present time would seem to be a favorable one for the repeal of all duties on books. The project of the Secretary has attracted attention, and the majority of Congress are known to be in favor of the principles of free trade in other articles. Why should they not be, if they think the people desire it, in respect to an article which presents so much stronger claims to favor than any other.

I am, sir, very respectfully,
Your obedient servant,

Brown University, }
April 20th, 1846. }

C. C. JEWETT.

MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

"BILLS OF EXCHANGE.—IMPORTANT DECISION."

[In the "Merchants' Magazine" for March, 1846, we published, under this head, a very full report of a case decided by Judge Watts, in the Commercial Court, (New Orleans.) We have since received a letter from JACOB BARKER, Esq., an eminent commercial lawyer of that city, which we cheerfully publish below. The London Economist, referred to in the letter of Mr. Barker, is conducted with singular ability, and although but recently established, it is rapidly obtaining an influence scarcely inferior to the most judicious journals in England. In publishing a brief but accurate statement of the facts, the legal editor of the Economist says, "The decision is in direct opposition to what has hitherto been considered the rights of such parties, and what has usually been the practice." The letter should have appeared in the April number of this Magazine, but it was not received until after the number was printed.—ED. MER. MAG.]

NEW ORLEANS, 19th March, 1846.

FREEMAN HUNT, Esq., *Editor Merchants' Magazine*:

Dear Sir—You having published in the last number of your useful Magazine, the opinion of Judge Watts, of the Commercial Court of this city, in the case of Messrs. Jacob Little & Co. vs. R. D. Blossman and others, it may be acceptable to your readers also to know that the case is now pending before the Supreme Court of this state, and that the decision of Judge Watts, in a similar case, is

considered by the editors of the *Economist*, a standard London newspaper, in direct opposition to what has hitherto been considered the rights of such parties, and to what has usually been the practice in London. You will find this opinion expressed in that paper of 31st January last, page 136,* which you have herewith.

If this novel doctrine of Judge Watts should become law, it will revolutionize the whole course of trade.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

JACOB BARKER.

BREACH OF CONTRACT—PRINCIPAL AND AGENT—RAILROAD STOCK.

In the Court of Common Pleas, (Boston, Mass.,) *Charles T. Bigelow vs. Paul Simpson, Jr.* This action was instituted upon the following written contract: "I have this day bought of Charles T. Bigelow, Esq., one hundred shares of Wilmington Railroad stock, at twenty-two dollars per share, payable at any time within sixty days, at my option, with interest. PAUL SIMPSON, JR.
Boston, April 18, 1845."

The defence was, that said contract was never in fact delivered to the plaintiff, but was given to one George W. Pratt, a broker, upon the condition that said Pratt should procure for the defendant a counterpart thereof, signed by said Bigelow; which, in fact, was never done. It appeared in evidence, that Mr. Bigelow, the plaintiff, was a captain in the army, and that he placed said shares in the hands of Thos. J. Lobdell, a broker, to be sold at the highest market value; also, that Mr. Lobdell owned a great many shares of the same stock himself, and did not wish to have it known that he was in any way connected with the sale of them, and therefore placed them in the hands of said Pratt for sale. Pratt sold them, as above expressed, upon time, to the defendant, through his broker, George W. Foster. Pratt, on being called by the plaintiff, testified that he sold the shares on the 18th of April to Mr. Foster, who disclosed that he was acting for Simpson, and that he (Pratt) disclosed as his principal, Bigelow; that Foster said that he would inquire of Simpson whether he should be satisfied with Bigelow's name to the contract of sale, it being the custom, in contracts of this nature, that the names given should be satisfactory to the parties. The next day he saw Foster, and told him that if he was not satisfied with the name of Bigelow, he would give him the name of Lobdell. To this Foster made no reply, but soon after called upon him, and brought the paper now in suit, signed by Simpson. That Foster left said paper with him, with the understanding that he, Pratt, should procure the counterpart, and deliver it to Foster the next Tuesday. That he, Pratt, by counterpart, understood that he was to deliver to Simpson a paper, signed by Lobdell, and that on the next Tuesday he did give to Foster such a paper, and never heard of it afterwards. It also appeared in evidence, that soon after the sale, which was on Friday, said Bigelow, on learning that his shares had been sold on time, sold them to Lobdell, who paid him for them.

The defendant called George W. Foster, who testified that he made the bargain at the broker's board, with Pratt, on Friday. That Pratt gave him Bigelow as his principal—telling him that he thought Bigelow's name a satisfactory one, and also informing him when he might call and ascertain. That he, Foster, replied that he would report to his own principal, Simpson, and, if he was satisfied, would prepare and exchange the contracts; that on mentioning Bigelow's name to Simpson, he was informed that the name was satisfactory, and therefore Foster wrote, and Simpson signed the paper sued. That on next day he called on Pratt with the paper, and left it with him, with the understanding that Pratt should, by the next Tuesday, deliver to him a counterpart, signed by Capt. Bigelow. That Pratt did not mention Lobdell's name at all, and never offered to give him as principal. That he, Foster, immediately communicated this fact to Pratt, and afterwards offered the paper he took from him back to Lobdell, who refused to receive it.

The question was entirely one of fact for the jury, whether Simpson had consented to take Lobdell's signature as the counterpart to the paper signed. The jury found for the defendant.

* We receive the "*Economist*" regularly, and have noticed the remarks of that Journal on this decision.

MARINE INSURANCE—TOTAL LOSS.

In the Circuit Court, New York, July, 1845, Judge Edmonds presiding. *Andrew Foster & Sons, vs. the Jackson Marine Insurance Company.*

This was an action on a marine policy of insurance, effected on the ship *Azelia*, on her voyage from Trieste to New York. On the 16th of October she sailed from Trieste, with only part of a cargo which she had engaged, the remainder having not as yet arrived there. Shortly after she left Trieste, she encountered a gale which forced her back to that port, and in the interim the remainder of her cargo having arrived there, she took it in, and again set sail for New York on the 23d of October. After leaving Trieste the second time, she again experienced such tempestuous weather, that it was found necessary to put into Gibraltar, where she was examined and a survey held on her, and she was pronounced to be unseaworthy, and sold for about \$1,000. The plaintiffs now claimed for a total loss. For the defence, it was alleged that the vessel was rotten at the time the policy was effected on her, and also, that her taking in a part of her cargo at Trieste, after she went there a second time, was a deviation from the voyage, and vitiated the policy.

The court charged the jury, that any act which incurred or increased a risk on the voyage, without necessity or reasonable cause, was a deviation. But that a deviation was allowable, if done fairly and in good faith, and to the best judgment of the master, and with no other object than to conduct the ship safely to her port of destination. In this case the vessel started on her return voyage on the 16th of October, and the next day returned to Trieste; and the question now to be considered was, whether that return was without necessity or reasonable cause. In order to answer that question, it was not necessary that the plaintiffs should satisfy the jury that there was actual danger, or that there would have been a loss from stress of weather, if she had not returned. It was sufficient for the jury if it was shown that the captain acted in good faith, and apprehended danger from the state of the weather. And in determining that question, the jury should take into consideration the nature of the voyage, the state of the sea, and the direction of the wind, which was then boisterous and directly against the vessel, and was unceasing all the time the ship was out of port. The jury should also consider the season of the year, which it appears is, in those latitudes, generally tempestuous and boisterous. If, after considering those circumstances, the jury found that the ship returned to port from stress of weather, then came the question, did her remaining at Trieste six days discharge the underwriters? The delay there would operate as a deviation, precisely in the same manner as any other departure from the direct course of her voyage, and must be governed by the same rules. The jury were therefore to determine, if there was a reasonable and probable cause for the ship staying there six days, although she might have put to sea during that time. And if the jury were satisfied that the captain was actuated by good faith in not going to sea on account of the unsettled state of the weather, and that he employed the time he remained there for taking in cargo, his doing so did not impair or render void the insurance. As to the question of seaworthiness, it was entirely a question of fact, to be determined by the jury. And in considering it, they must take into view the materials and construction of the ship, the qualifications of the captain, the number of the crew, and the general outfit of the vessel, and say were they, generally speaking, such as were fit for a voyage from Trieste to New York.

Verdict for plaintiffs, \$8,327 49, being the amount claimed.

INSOLVENT DEBTOR—PREFERRED CREDITORS.

In the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, before Chief Justice Shaw. *Peter Frothingham, et al., vs. Wm. F. Haynes.* P. W. Chandler for the plaintiffs, William Brigham for the defendant.

This was the case of an action by the assignees of Isaac P. Ford, an insolvent debtor, to recover from defendant the value of certain property, alleged to have been transferred to the defendant in order to give him a preference or priority over the other creditors. It appeared that Haynes in December last sued out a writ

against Ford, returnable at the January term of the Court of Common Pleas, and attached all his visible property. The writ was entered, and judgment was rendered by agreement for the plaintiff on the first day of the term. Execution was taken out in twenty-four hours, and the property was afterwards sold. It appeared that in this country, by a rule of the court, the new document is not made up for the inspection of the bar until the Saturday after the first Tuesday of the term. Ford was subsequently forced into insolvency in Plymouth county, before Welcome Young, Esq., a master in chancery, and it was admitted that he was insolvent at the time of the attachment.

The plaintiffs in this suit alleged, and offered evidence to prove, that the attachment and levy of execution were made for the purpose of giving Haynes a preference or priority over the other creditors in contravention of the amendment of the insolvent law, made in 1841.

The defendant contended that property transferred by due process of law did not come within the provisions of the insolvent law, or of any of the acts in addition thereto; and he also contended that the plaintiffs had not made out a case on the facts.

Shaw, C. J., in charging the jury, ruled, among other things, that if a person who was insolvent procured his estate to be attached or taken in execution, with intention to prefer a creditor, and it was so taken, within six months of his being declared an insolvent, then it might be recovered back by the assignees under the insolvent law, providing the creditor, when excepting such preference, had reasonable cause to believe the debtor insolvent.

The jury returned a verdict for the plaintiffs for \$877.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

CONDITION OF THE MONEY-MARKET—BANK EXPANSIONS—BANK LOANS OF FIVE LEADING STATES—IMPORTS AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK, IN 1845-6—CUSTOM DUTIES AT BOSTON AND NEW YORK—SUDDEN DEMAND FOR EXCHANGE—INCREASED RATES OF EXCHANGE—ALARM OF THE BANKS IN CONSEQUENCE OF THE SUB-TREASURY LAW—SEMI-ANNUAL DIVIDENDS OF BOSTON BANKS—INCREASED PROFITS OF BANKS—MASSACHUSETTS BANKS—OHIO BANKS—EXTENSION OF BANKS IN ALL THE STATES—LOCATION OF THE SURPLUS MONEY OF THE UNITED STATES—THE SUB-TREASURY LAW, AND ITS EFFECTS ON COMMERCE—THE CURRENCY—THE WAREHOUSING SYSTEM—IMPORTANCE OF A BRANCH MINT IN NEW YORK, ETC.—CASH DUTIES—TREASURY ORDER REDUCING DUTIES ON BREAD-STUFFS IMPORTED INTO GREAT BRITAIN.

The past month has, from various causes, presented a marked change in the state of money matters. The course of the foreign trade, influenced by a sudden rise in the value of money abroad, produced a kind of crisis at the departure of the packet of the 1st of April; and it was estimated that the remittances were larger, at that juncture, than perhaps ever before, at one time. It has been the case, during the past year, that a rapid and general expansion has taken place in the banking movement of all the states. A necessary consequence of such a movement is uniformly an advance in prices, and an increase of imports. This expansion is indicated in the following figures, taken from the official reports of the banks of five leading states, towards the commencement of each of the two years, 1845-6:—

BANK LOANS OF FIVE LEADING STATES.

Years.	Massachusetts.	New York.	Pennsylvania.	Maryland.	Ohio.
1845,.....	\$48,770,975	\$73,091,796	\$23,347,426	\$9,677,773	\$3,130,240
1846,.....	52,648,729	74,780,435	27,102,507	20,143,299	7,791,789
Incr.,...	\$3,877,754	\$1,688,639	\$3,755,081	\$10,465,526	\$4,661,549

The increase is here general and large. The facilities afforded by those institution

whose aggregate returns are embraced in the table, to the disposal of imported, as well as home-made goods, stimulated overtrading; by which we mean a larger amount of goods imported, and taken into the hands of jobbers and shop-keepers, than was sufficient for the actual consumption. The result of such overtrading is an increased stock in the hands of shop-keepers, and also an increase in the amount of their outstanding obligations; to meet which, the actual consumption of, and payment for the goods, in the products of industry, is necessary. The banking movement directly facilitates this operation, in a regular state of affairs. Commencing with the last fall, however, money began to be scarce in England—the railroad speculations, the war-rumors, and the failure of the harvest, all conspired to produce a stringency in money in the manufacturing districts. The full activity of banking machinery here had advanced prices to rates that would neutralize the prohibitive effect of the tariff, and it became possible to send, as formerly, large quantities of goods to this market, obtain advances from the large auctioneering houses, discount the paper so procured, and send the proceeds to England. The following table of imports at the port of New York will indicate the progress of this movement:—

IMPORTS AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK.

	1844-45.	1845-46.	Increase.	Decrease.
1st 11 months,.....	\$71,889,094	\$65,255,727	\$6,633,367
December,.....	3,037,371	4,076,672	\$1,039,301
January and February,	11,137,784	10,012,101	1,125,683
March,.....	6,242,453	9,812,494	3,570,041
Total, 15 months,	\$92,306,702	\$89,156,994

While money remained easy in England, the imports into the port of New York were rather less last year than otherwise; having declined, for the first eleven months of 1845, 9 per cent, as compared with the same period of the previous year. When, however, a pressure began to be felt abroad, the goods were sent over to realize; and, down to the 1st of April, the imports were very large; notwithstanding that a great reduction in duties was and is looked for. The imports at Boston were larger, as indicated in the duties collected, as follows:—

CUSTOMS DUTIES AT BOSTON AND NEW YORK, FROM JANUARY 1ST TO APRIL 1ST.

	1845.	1846.	Increase.
Boston,.....	\$946,668	\$1,406,047	\$459,379
New York,	4,626,862	5,360,835	723,973

This movement of imports, under such circumstances, caused an immense and sudden demand for exchange for the 1st of April; and the rate for bills jumped up from $8\frac{1}{2}$ to 10 per cent premium, with every prospect of a continued demand, for remittance. The large bill-houses made immediate preparation to ship specie largely, to draw against. The banks had, however, in the meantime, become alarmed at the prospect of the immediate action of the sub-treasury, exposing them to the double demand for specie, both foreign and internal, and they rigorously curtailed their accommodations, and the auctioneers ceased to advance on imported goods, by which means the demand for bills was so reduced as to cause the rate to fall back to $9\frac{1}{2}$, more particularly that later advices spoke of an easier state of the money-markets of both Paris and England. When this sudden demand for remittances sprung up, the supply of bills had been greatly diminished through failures of consignees of produce abroad, and the shortness of the cotton crop. Up to April 1st, the diminution of exports of cotton was equal to an amount of \$12,000,000. Some considerable quantities of bills drawn against other produce had also been returned, in consequence of the failure of parties abroad, who had appropriated the proceeds of produce consigned to them to their own disastrous railroad speculations.

There has also been, in the New England States, an over-action in manufacturing industry, caused rather by anticipation of extensive sales, than any effective demand for the wares. The banking movement has expanded, to meet this speculative feeling. The results, thus far, on bank profits, are indicated in the following table of the semi-annual dividends declared by the Boston banks:—

	1843-44.		1844-45.		1845-46.	
	Capital.	Dividends.	Capital.	Dividends.	Capital.	Dividends.
October,.....	\$17,010,000	\$417,000	\$17,480,000	\$480,800	\$17,630,000	\$561,850
April,.....	17,480,000	426,300	17,480,000	550,250	18,180,000	593,000
Tot. annual,		\$843,300		\$1,031,050		\$1,154,850

The profits of these institutions have increased, it appears, 40 per cent in two years, and they are now in a position more expanded, by far, than when the suspension of 1837 overtook them. The following is a comparison:—

MASSACHUSETTS BANKS.

	Loans.	Specie.	Deposits.	Circulation.
May, 1837,.....	\$55,878,956	\$1,422,440	\$8,188,680	\$8,986,497
Nov., 1845,.....	52,648,729	3,367,904	11,668,135	14,339,686
Increase,.....		\$1,945,504	\$3,479,455	\$4,353,189
Decrease,.....	\$3,230,227			

The increase of specie is nearly as one to four of the increase of the deposits and circulation. In the state of Ohio, the increase of banking has been very great under the law of the last session. In January, 1845, there were eight banks in operation in that state. In 1846, there were thirty-one banks in operation, and they compared as follows:—

BANKS OF OHIO.

	1845.	1846.			
	8 banks.	8 old banks.	23 new banks.	Total.	Increase.
Loans,.....	\$3,141,281	\$4,924,469	\$3,267,320	\$7,791,789	\$4,650,508
Specie,.....	735,048	729,148	645,443	1,374,593	639,545
Circulation,.....	2,370,212	2,641,087	1,864,804	4,505,891	2,135,679
Deposits,.....	434,412	1,124,052	1,558,169	2,682,221	2,247,809

The machinery here exists for vast expansion, which must inevitably end in explosion. When we reflect that, with the heavy taxation in Ohio, the severe competition which her farmers have to undergo with other lake states *not taxed*, and that the operation of the banks is to run the state in debt for goods, until the paper structure is undermined, and insolvency overtakes the new-formed banks, we cannot but apprehend the same results that have followed similar causes in other states, viz., an impatience of taxation when the revulsion overtakes them.

The expansion is, as we have seen, not confined to Ohio; it is common to all the banks of all the states, and the institutions are jeopardized by that adverse state of the exchanges, which their own movements have mainly helped to produce. At this juncture, it is, no doubt, matter of alarm to contemplate the prompt enforcement of the specie clause of the sub-treasury law, which has passed the House of Representatives by so large a majority. The bill itself is very simple; it has no complicated provisions. Its chief feature is, that nothing but gold and silver shall be received in payment of the public dues, after July 30th, 1846, and that nothing but gold and silver shall be paid out after October 1st, 1846. There has been in the United States Treasury, during the last two years, a sum of money averaging over \$10,000,000, an accumulation over the whole current expenditures of the government, and a payment of a portion of the public debt. This surplus was located nearly as follows:—

New England States,.....	\$1,287,651	New York,.....	\$5,572,022
Pennsylvania,.....	849,706	Washington,	530,078
U. S. Mints,.....	910,000	Other places,.....	2,634,946

Total deposits, April 1st, 1846,..... \$11,784,403

This money has been loaned to banks and brokers *without interest*, at the same time the United States have been paying 6 per cent for money borrowed. The circumstances of the import of foreign goods to which we have above alluded, have greatly assisted to swell this accumulation, and the money, in its turn, has been the means of facilitating the imports, until a foreign demand for specie has sprung up. The government now proposes to demand all its dues in specie of the banks, and pour it off into the channels of general business, through the treasury vaults. The law is briefly as follows:—The vaults of the treasury buildings are constituted the treasury of the United States. The treasurers of the mints at New Orleans and Philadelphia, together with the collectors of Boston, New York, Charleston, and St. Louis, are made “receivers-general” of the public money. To these are accountable all persons in the several districts respectively, who receive the public moneys. Each “receiver-general” receives all the money collected in his district, and deposits it in the appointed vault under his control. The money is then, at all times, subject to the draft and order of the Secretary of the Treasury, either for transfer from one depository to another, or in payment to the public creditors. This appears to be the whole machinery of the Independent Treasury law. The drafts drawn by the Secretary of the Treasury on the public funds, must be presented at the point on which they are drawn, within a reasonable time for their transmission, or the Secretary may, at his option, change the place of payment; as, for instance, if the creditor at Washington receives a bill on New York, it will be worth a premium as a remittance, and might float as a currency in the exchanges for a length of time. To prevent this, the law requires the draft to be presented and paid, within, say a week, or the Secretary may change the place of payment, make it St. Louis, or any other point at his pleasure. If the law demands specie for dues, and compelling specie to be paid out after 30th June, 1846, regardless of the existing surplus, the deposit banks would scarcely be able to meet the \$11,788,000, which they hold, in specie. The law therefore provides that, until October, 1846, the disbursing officer may, when provided with drafts on the present depositories, draw those drafts, and pay out such funds as he receives for them. This allows three months for the expenditure of the present surplus; but it necessarily involves the accumulation in the government vaults, in specie, of all the customs duties for that three months, until the present surplus is expended. The quarter from June to July is usually that of the heaviest receipts. In that period of 1845, they were \$8,861,992, and in the previous year, \$10,873,768. This year they will probably be less in the same time, because the time for the reduction in duties will have been approached, and the large imports of the present spring may have so glutted the markets as to make goods plenty. At any rate, some \$7,000,000 of specie must go into the treasury vaults, and remain idle for a length of time, unless the present surplus is disposed of before the law goes into operation. A proposition to effect this has been before Congress, with the view to appropriate the surplus to the payment of the government debt at its present value. This operation would, doubtless, relieve the market from many of the apprehensions under which it labors. The present value of the 6 per cent stock of the government, redeemable in 1862, having 16 years to run, interest paid semi-annually, to yield 6 per cent interest per annum, is 1 per cent premium; calculated to yield 5 per cent interest, it is worth 11½ per cent premium. If the sub-treasury law produces in its action that stringency in the money-market which is apprehended from it, this stock would be readily obtained at its value as a 6 per cent stock. It has been the misfortune of the recent system of the deposits of public money with banks, that it has imparted to stocks, more particularly to United States stocks, a fictitious value. That is

to say, in addition to their value as a safe investment of surplus capital to yield an income of 6 per cent per annum, they have become valuable as a means of borrowing. That is to say, the purchaser or holder of a United States 6 per cent stock, could obtain a loan of government money on it as security, *without* interest. Therefore that stock had a distinct, tangible and practical value above all other 6 per cent stocks, and well calculated to sustain its market price above most other 6 per cent securities. The law, as it passed the House of Representatives, is, however, clearly impracticable. It provides that, after June 30th, 1846, nothing but gold and silver shall be received, and after October 30th, nothing but gold and silver shall be paid out. The constitutional currency of the United States is, undoubtedly, gold and silver coin, and that alone is recognized as money. The constitution went also a step further, and forbid any of the states ever to recognize, legally, anything but gold and silver. So far, therefore, as strict constitutionality goes, the law simply adheres to that instrument. The constitution, however, when forbidding the states to legalize anything but gold and silver as money, gave to Congress the exclusive power of furnishing that gold and silver coin which was alone to compose the currency of the states. If Congress neglected to exercise the exclusive right thus enforced on it, and failed to furnish the gold and silver *money*, it was itself the cause of forcing paper upon the states and community. Of this neglect, Congress has really been guilty, and now, to turn round and declare that the government creditors shall have for their claims, not money, but gold bullion, is, to say the least, arbitrary. It has been urged by bank advocates on the one hand, that those institutions are necessary to *furnish* a currency, and on the other hand, many have contended that it is the duty of the government to *furnish* it. Both these positions are, we apprehend, gross fallacies. Money, the money of the world as well as of countries, consists exclusively of the precious metals. The prices of all commodities are determined by the quantity of gold or silver of a certain fineness or quality, which they will command in any country. In the commerce of nations, gold is as much purchased with commodities, as are commodities with gold. A barrel of flour in Liverpool, is worth 30s., or 185 grains of gold, 915 thousandths fine. The same barrel of flour, in New York, is worth \$5, or 129 grains of gold, 900 thousandths fine. That is to say, there may be obtained in Liverpool 56 grains more gold for a barrel of flour, than in New York. This may arise as well from the scarcity of gold in New York, as from the scarcity of flour in Liverpool. To transport the flour to Liverpool and bring back the gold, would require that the ship-owner, merchant, and others, should have some grains of gold for their trouble. Possibly they would take 40 grains; so that he who gave 129 grains of gold for a barrel of flour in New York, would also disburse for freight, &c., 40 grains more, making 169 grains, and he would get 185 grains in Liverpool; he will, therefore, bring into the country 16 grains of gold more than was here before. Thus it is, that the precious metals, or the *raw material* for money, is *furnished*; it is, purely, an operation of commerce. Now money is simply the division of the metals into convenient pieces, and having a stamp upon them by which the receiver may know, at a glance, the precise quantity and quality contained in each. The government reserves to itself the exclusive right to do this, and it is very desirable that it should. It so happens, however, that every nation of the earth makes its pieces to contain different quantities and qualities of gold, and although they are perfectly well known to the people of each country, yet they are entirely unintelligible to the citizens of foreign countries. Most of the nations, therefore, do not recognize gold as money until it is actually money; that is to say, until the government stamp certifies that each piece contains the required quantity and quality. In the United States, the government does not require this; it allows all gold and silver to be a legal tender, no matter what shape it may be in. It makes the *metal* money, instead of coin, exclusively. It provides, indeed, a mint to coin the metal, but it requires the owner of the metals to bring them to the mint; and, as that is situated

in Philadelphia, at a distance from the place of ownership, it is little available. Now it is very evident that gold and silver bullion, or foreign coins, are no more *money* than watch-cases and ear-rings, because the public cannot ascertain the number and quality of the grains of gold they contain. Of the \$7,000,000 of specie now in the New York banks, about \$1,000,000 only, is *money*: that is, coins with which the people are acquainted. The balance is all sorts of foreign coins, to ascertain the value of which, requires a skilful assayer. If, therefore, the government demands, in July, specie exclusively, it can procure nothing but this *material* for money. This may answer for its receipts, but when it undertakes to pay it out again, for salaries, contracts, &c., at the rates fixed by law, it simply throws its creditors into the hands of brokers, who will *shave* them at their pleasure, as much as if that which they received from the government was *strange paper* instead of *strange gold*. From these circumstances, it is pretty obvious, we think, that before the government compels the exclusive use of gold and silver *money*, it would be well for it to do its own duty, and provide the money from the material furnished by commerce, according to the exclusive right to "coin money and regulate the value thereof," conferred upon it by the federal constitution. The location of a mint in New York, would go far to obviate this difficulty; and, with the growing trade of Boston, perhaps a branch there may become necessary. If the law, as it is, goes into operation, it may become necessary to transfer the specie collected here, to the mint at Philadelphia, for coinage, and again to this city for disbursement, until a mint can be established here. The establishment of a warehousing system will also become a necessary accompaniment of the sub-treasury law, with the enforcement of cash duties. To enforce the collection, in coin, of all duties on goods at the moment of import, must, necessarily, crush all carrying trade, as well as greatly interfere with the regular returns into the country, of the proceeds of produce sold abroad.

A treasury order has been issued, and transmitted to the customs authorities at the several ports, directing that buckwheat, Indian corn, and rice, may be liberated on payment of the reduced rates of duty proposed by Sir Robert Peel, and resolved on by the British House of Commons, the parties, however, being required to give bond to pay the old duty, provided the parliament finally reject the ministerial project. Without waiting for the consummation of the measure now before the House, therefore, the subjoined articles may be liberated at the rates of duty annexed, the importers merely giving the formal undertaking above specified:

	£	s.	d.
Buckwheat, the quarter,.....	0	1	0
Buckwheat meal, the cwt.,.....	0	1	0
Maize or Indian corn, the quarter,.....	0	1	0
— meal, the cwt.,.....	0	0	4½
Rice, the cwt.,.....	0	1	0
— of and from any British possession, the cwt.,.....	0	0	6
— rough, and in the husk, the quarter,.....	0	1	0
— of and from a British possession, the quarter,.....	0	0	1

The import of corn into England, for the supply of whatever may be wanted to make up the deficit of the coming summer, must come from the United States, principally. The prices of grain in Europe are by no means such as to warrant the expectation that they will be able to compete with the abundance of the great west. It is to be hoped that the exports of farm produce will, to a considerable extent, compensate for the loss which will be sustained through diminished exports of cotton, at low prices.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES,

FOR THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1845.

WE are indebted to the Hon. CHARLES S. BENTON, member of Congress from New York, for an early copy of the letter of the Secretary of the Treasury, transmitting the annual report of Commerce and Navigation, for the year ending June 30th, 1845; and, in accordance with the plan we adopted in the early volumes of the Merchants' Magazine, we now proceed to place on record, a full and comprehensive view of the commerce and navigation of the United States, for that year. We have, on several former occasions, called the attention of the administration to the importance of a greater degree of promptness in the preparation and publication of these reports. The present report is dated November 29, 1845, and was communicated to both Houses of Congress on the 4th of December, 1845, five months after the close of the commercial year; four months more have elapsed since it was put into the hands of the printer to Congress; so that a space of nine calendar months have been consumed in the preparation and printing of this document. But this is an improvement on previous years. The report for the year ending June, 1844, occupied nearly a year in the preparation; and we were enabled only to give the results of that report in the number of this Magazine for June, 1845, just one year after its close. The custom-house returns should all be made to the Treasury Department within one month after the expiration of the commercial year, (30th of June,) so that they would be in the hands of the Register of the Treasury and his assistants on the 1st of August; which would give them four months to prepare the report, prior to the meeting of Congress. One or two months, with sufficient force, would afford ample time to perform that duty; but the better course would be, for Congress to pass a permanent law, authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to prepare and print a specified number of the report annually, so that it could be distributed among the members at the opening of Congress, in December of each year. There can be no objection to this method, as no alteration is, or can be made in the report by the action of Congress, and about the same number are ordered to be printed every year.

DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

Summary statement of the value of the Exports of the growth, produce, and manufacture of the United States, during the year commencing on the 1st day of July, 1844, and ending on the 30th day of June, 1845.

THE SEA.				
Fisheries—			Other lumber.....	\$369,505
Dried fish, or cod fisheries,	\$803,353		Masts and spars.....	28,692
Pickled fish, or river fisheries, (herring, salmon, shad, mackerel,).....	208,654		Oak bark, and other dye..	70,616
Whale and other fish oil,.	1,520,363		All manufac. of wood,...	677,420
Spermaceti oil,.....	975,195		Naval stores, tar, pitch, rosin, and turpentine,....	814,969
Whalebone,	762,642		Ashes, pot and pearl,.....	1,210,496
Spermaceti candles,.....	236,917			\$6,550,491
	\$4,507,124		AGRICULTURE.	
THE FOREST.			Product of animals—	
Skins and furs,.....	\$1,248,355		Beef, tallow, hides, horned cattle,.....	\$1,926,809
Ginseng,.....	177,146		Butter and cheese,.....	878,865
Product of wood—			Pork, (pickled) bacon, lard and live hogs,.....	2,991,284
Staves, shingles, boards, hewn timber,	1,953,222		Horses and mules,.....	385,466
			Sheep,.....	23,948

DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES—CONTINUED.

Vegetable food—		Cotton piece goods—	
Wheat,.....	\$336,779	Printed and colored,.....	\$516,243
Flour,.....	5,398,593	White,.....	2,343,104
Indian corn,.....	411,741	Nankeen,.....	1,174,038
Indian meal,.....	641,552	Twist, yarn, and thread,...	14,379
Rye meal,.....	112,908	All other manufac. of,....	280,164
Rye, oats, and other small grain and pulse,.....	177,953	Flax and hemp—bags, and all manufactures of,....	14,762
Biscuit, or ship-bread,....	366,294	Wearing apparel,.....	59,653
Potatoes,.....	122,926	Combs and buttons,.....	23,794
Apples,.....	81,306	Brushes,.....	2,206
Rice,.....	2,160,456	Billiard-tables and apparatus,.....	1,551
Tobacco,.....	7,469,819	Umbrellas and parasols,....	2,583
Cotton,.....	51,739,643	Leather and morocco skins, not sold per pound,.....	16,363
All other agric. products—		Fire-engines & apparatus,...	12,660
Flaxseed,.....	81,978	Printing-presses and type,...	26,774
Hops,.....	90,341	Musical instruments,.....	18,309
Brown sugar,.....	11,107	Books and maps,.....	43,298
Indigo,.....	70	Paper and stationery,.....	106,190
	\$75,409,860	Paints and varnish,.....	50,165
MANUFACTURES.		Vinegar,.....	14,375
Soap, and tallow candles,....	\$623,946	Earthen and stone ware,....	7,393
Leather, boots and shoes,....	328,091	Manuf. of glass,.....	98,760
Household furniture,.....	277,488	“ tin,.....	10,114
Coaches and other carriages,...	55,821	“ pewter and lead,...	14,404
Hats,.....	70,597	“ marble and stone,...	17,626
Saddlery,.....	20,847	“ gold and silver, & gold-leaf,.....	3,229
Wax,.....	234,794	Gold and silver coin,.....	844,446
Spirits from grain,.....	75,108	Artificial flowers & jewelry,.....	10,435
Beer, ale, porter, and cider,...	69,582	Molasses,.....	20,771
Snuff and tobacco,.....	538,498	Trunks,.....	3,336
Linseed oil and sp. turp,....	92,614	Brick and lime,.....	8,701
Cordage,.....	55,016	Domestic salt,.....	45,151
Iron—pig, bar, and nails,....	77,669	Lead,.....	342,646
castings,.....	118,248	Articles not enumerated—	
all manufactures of,...	649,100	Manufactured,.....	1,269,338
Spirits from molasses,.....	216,118	Other articles,.....	1,315,578
Sugar, refined,.....	164,662		\$12,832,371
Chocolate,.....	1,461		
Gunpowder,.....	122,599		
Copper and brass,.....	94,736		
Medicinal drugs,.....	212,837		
		Grand total,.....	\$99,299,776

RECAPITULATION.

The Sea,.....	\$4,507,124	Tobacco,.....	\$7,469,816
The Forest,.....	6,550,421	Cotton,.....	51,739,643
Agriculture,.....	6,206,394	Other agricul. products,....	183,496
Vegetable food,.....	9,810,508	Manufactures,.....	12,832,371

DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF THE U. STATES TO EACH COUNTRY, IN 1844-45.

Whither exported.	ARTICLES NOT ENUMERATED.		TOTAL VALUE OF MERCHANDISE.			
	Manuf'd.	Other.	In American vessels.	In Foreign vessels.	To each country.	
Russia,.....	\$917	\$508,246	\$28,599	\$536,845	
Prussia,.....	533	\$901	78,097	423,910	502,007	
Sweden and Norway,....	30,600	219,967	250,567	
Swedish West Indies,...	2,246	586	88,886	88,886	
Denmark,.....	31,835	92,831	124,666	
Danish West Indies,....	8,100	9,507	809,315	24,188	833,503	
Hanse Towns,.....	11,240	23,117	1,145,282	2,961,645	4,106,927	
Holland,.....	2,746	1,278	1,880,121	873,659	2,753,780	
Dutch East Indies,.....	4,420	93	129,151	129,151	

DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF U. STATES TO EACH COUNTRY, ETC.—CONTINUED.

Whither exported.	ARTICLES NOT ENUMERATED.		TOTAL VALUE OF MERCHANDISE.		
	Manuf'd.	Other.	In American vessels.	In Foreign vessels.	To each country.
Dutch West Indies,.....	\$1,156	\$1,953	\$304,080	\$304,080
Dutch Guiana,.....	412	290	47,737	47,737
Belgium,.....	8,716	8,678	1,259,458	236,296	1,495,754
England,.....	212,185	504,423	29,582,384	11,936,550	41,518,934
Scotland,.....	4,456	54,080	1,281,309	1,330,565	2,611,874
Ireland,.....	916	90,886	12,585	103,471
Gibraltar,.....	295	408	388,051	38,056	426,107
Malta,.....	12,909	12,909
British East Indies,.....	1,915	28,061	297,331	297,331
Cape of Good Hope,....	667	45	33,743	33,743
Mauritius,.....	12,935	12,935
Australia,.....	1,580	69,521	69,521
Honduras,.....	5,743	4,259	169,748	18,746	188,494
British Guiana,.....	3,815	10,204	333,341	83,526	416,867
British West Indies,....	36,340	78,521	3,572,211	515,289	4,087,500
British Amer. colonies, ..	684,378	307,457	2,295,096	2,549,870	4,844,966
France on the Atlantic, ..	11,998	54,553	10,651,028	699,404	11,350,432
France on the Medit.,....	6,535	1,630	979,739	979,739
French West Indies,....	2,137	9,303	512,341	30,114	542,455
French Guiana,.....	144	1,025	57,052	57,052
French African ports,....	5,508	5,508
Bourbon,.....	985	16,483	16,483
Spain on the Atlantic,....	264,388	6,845	271,233
Spain on Mediterranean,	25,160	30,540	55,700
Teneriffe, and other Canaries,.....	60	4,346	1,549	5,895
Manilla, and Philippine islands,.....	838	119,263	119,263
Cuba,.....	36,585	59,629	5,537,941	665,867	6,203,808
Other Sp. W. Indies,....	11,849	10,913	654,271	33,878	688,149
Portugal,.....	105	104,597	19,753	124,350
Madeira,.....	223	168	53,554	5,758	59,312
Fayal, and other Azores,	2,831	2,831
Cape de Verd islands, ..	297	311	50,085	514	50,599
Italy,.....	1,951	965	485,770	101,799	587,569
Sicily,.....	4,113	66,512	70,625
Sardinia,.....	41	129,178	33,649	162,827
Trieste, and other Austrian ports,.....	512	1,596	1,026,338	406,765	1,433,103
Turkey, Levant, &c.,	3,381	115,553	115,553
Hayti,.....	4,399	8,166	1,321,376	6,515	1,327,891
Texas,.....	2,934	6,091	173,631	37,105	210,736
Mexico,.....	10,771	19,616	705,871	78,283	784,154
Gen. Rep. of America,...	751	1,025	36,087	5,461	41,548
New Grenada,.....	766	471	48,717	48,717
Venezuela,.....	8,879	5,737	499,676	35,869	535,545
Brazil,.....	53,599	31,800	2,359,214	54,353	2,413,567
Cisplatine Republic,....	1,819	503	115,005	25,981	140,986
Argentine Republic,....	13,215	5,850	320,099	22,476	342,575
Chili,.....	15,062	14,395	1,247,360	1,247,360
Peru,.....	1,634	435	33,424	33,424
China,.....	12,616	9,874	2,079,341	2,079,341
West Indies, generally, ..	36	1,499	182,598	182,598
S. America, generally, ..	1,044	13	75,329	75,329
Europe, generally,.....	21,573	21,573
Asia, generally,.....	1,735	171,803	171,803
Africa, generally,.....	4,846	2,244	464,198	61,365	525,563
S. Seas and Pac. ocean, ..	70,253	28,477	416,025	416,025

Total,..... \$1,269,338 \$1,315,578 \$75,483,123 \$23,816,653 \$99,299,776

FOREIGN EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1844-45.

Whither exported.	Free of duty. Dolls.	Paying ad val. dut. Dolls.	Paying spec. duties. Dolls.	Total. Dolls.	To each power. Dolls.
Russia,.....	50,318	12,796	127,378	190,492	190,492
Prussia,.....	53,038	2,949	9,127	65,114	65,114
Sweden and Norway,.....	16,545	2,645	3,571	22,761	24,214
Swedish West Indies,.....	1,453	1,453	
Denmark,.....	11,516	8,985	20,501	181,427
Danish West Indies,.....	75,866	38,815	46,245	160,926	
Hanse Towns,.....	249,122	166,619	422,352	838,093	838,093
Holland,.....	155,518	59,168	53,581	268,267	375,854
Dutch East Indies,.....	70,557	1,150	300	72,007	
Dutch West Indies,.....	24,163	2,892	6,653	33,708	
Dutch Guiana,.....	630	1,242	1,872	
Belgium,.....	152,402	186,691	16,226	355,319	355,319
England,.....	3,699,794	329,694	737,756	4,767,244	6,419,883
Scotland,.....	14,297	8,633	32,006	54,936	
Gibraltar,.....	84,106	13,647	65,811	163,564	
British East Indies,.....	89,597	31,595	12,875	134,067	
Australia, &c.,.....	790	790	3,192,325
British Honduras,.....	6,738	26,473	18,210	51,421	
British Guiana,.....	1,881	1,881	
British West Indies,.....	12,757	5,886	18,077	36,720	
British American colonies,.....	996,726	99,091	113,443	1,209,260	446,394
France on the Atlantic,.....	2,799,090	110,121	63,042	2,972,253	
France on Mediterranean,.....	156,721	18,270	22,989	197,980	
French West Indies,.....	10,689	159	10,800	21,648	
French Guiana,.....	444	444	10,088
Spain on the Atlantic,.....	350	200	550	
Spain on Mediterranean,.....	28,808	28,808	
Manilla, and Phil. islands,.....	32,702	21	2,592	35,315	
Cuba,.....	46,287	117,121	197,538	360,946	32,970
Other Sp. West Indies,.....	9,372	3,221	8,182	20,775	
Portugal,.....	3,559	1,860	5,419	
Madeira,.....	325	1,459	1,784	
Fayal, and other Azores,.....	51	51	230,352
Cape de Verdes,.....	1,181	303	1,350	2,834	
Italy,.....	80,725	90,646	58,981	230,352	
Sicily,.....	25,868	127,127	181,652	334,667	
Sardinia,.....	22,791	10,179	32,970	368,775
Trieste, &c.,.....	175,379	22,559	170,837	368,775	
Turkey, Levant, &c.,.....	34,655	5,925	8,966	49,546	
Hayti,.....	18,316	32,376	27,157	77,849	
Texas,.....	20,090	75,367	57,599	153,056	368,177
Mexico,.....	24,268	189,836	154,073	368,177	
Gen. Rep. of America,.....	1,585	16,772	7,744	26,101	
New Grenada,.....	2,433	12,488	15,339	30,260	
Venezuela,.....	163,036	11,224	15,325	189,585	424,383
Brazil,.....	273,500	57,588	93,295	424,383	
Cisplatine Republic,.....	7,379	8,771	16,150	
Argentine Republic,.....	113,125	17,876	29,430	160,431	
Chili,.....	31,071	148,046	121,714	300,831	196,654
China,.....	167,887	7,901	20,866	196,654	
West Indies, generally,.....	378	378	
S. America, generally,.....	4,332	5,578	9,910	
Asia, generally,.....	107,057	3,581	30,307	140,945	57,064
Africa, generally,.....	44,112	16,938	18,493	79,543	
South Seas and Pac. ocean,.....	9,957	25,910	21,197	57,064	
Total,.....	10,175,099	2,107,292	3,064,439	15,346,830	15,346,830
Entitled to drawback,.....	1,829,212	2,853,252	4,682,464
Not entitled to drawback,.....	10,175,099	278,080	211,187	10,664,366

IMPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1844-45.

Whence imported.	Free of duty.	Paying ad val. dut.	Paying spec. dut.	Total.	From each power.
Russia,.....	\$31,313	\$560,041	\$900,908	\$1,491,262	\$1,492,262
Prussia,.....	21,500	9,582	31,082	31,082
Sweden and Norway,.....	138	1,098	626,702	627,938	640,057
Swedish West Indies,.....	8,813	4	3,302	12,119	
Denmark,.....	1,705	20,724	22,429	783,238
Danish West Indies,.....	49,286	57,412	654,111	760,809	
Hanse Towns,.....	164,682	2,473,366	274,489	2,912,537	2,912,537
Holland,.....	220,358	185,080	548,906	954,344	1,897,623
Dutch East Indies,.....	339,887	149,012	49,709	538,608	
Dutch West Indies,.....	72,884	179,189	111,251	363,324	
Dutch Guiana,.....	41,347	41,347	
Belgium,.....	10,317	646,696	52,549	709,562	709,562
England,.....	1,621,801	35,835,226	7,230,832	44,687,859	49,903,725
Scotland,.....	4,422	473,694	230,071	708,187	
Ireland,.....	109	59,871	44,877	104,857	
Gibraltar,.....	12,307	62,239	17,572	92,118	
Malta,.....	1,026	3,374	17,911	22,311	22,069,914
British East Indies,.....	433,367	456,963	386,204	1,276,534	
Cape of Good Hope,.....	4,783	21,656	26,439	
British Honduras,.....	144,508	36,442	23,868	204,818	
British Guiana,.....	7,422	7	528	7,957	10,590,544
British West Indies,.....	369,719	47,032	335,829	752,580	
British American colonies,...	1,139,678	330,510	549,877	2,020,065	
France on the Atlantic,.....	241,780	10,337,788	9,601,682	20,181,250	
France on the Mediter.,.....	546,374	523,997	343,804	1,414,175	501,734
French West Indies,.....	217,469	9,892	187,671	415,032	
French Guiana,.....	5,710	19,468	34,128	59,306	
Miquelon, and Fr. fisheries,	118	33	151	
Spain on the Atlantic,.....	2,622	55,445	59,091	117,158	1,301,577
Spain on the Mediterranean, ..	112,715	77,802	764,111	954,628	
Teneriffe and other Canaries, ..	25,340	19,081	10,611	55,032	
Manilla, and Philip. islands, ..	71,904	91,085	470,070	633,059	
Cuba,.....	812,113	380,858	5,611,443	6,804,414	1,301,577
Other Spanish West Indies, ..	90,224	22,647	1,913,382	2,026,253	
Portugal,.....	13,722	3,267	279,919	296,908	
Madeira,.....	128	235	168,311	168,674	
Fayal,.....	4,140	1,880	22,553	28,573	1,301,577
Cape de Verds,.....	86	6,845	648	7,579	
Italy,.....	134,305	679,944	487,328	1,301,577	
Sicily,.....	104,961	300,497	124,035	529,493	
Sardinia,.....	1,200	18,653	6	19,859	19,859
Trieste,.....	25,418	90,240	205,892	321,550	321,550
Turkey,.....	77,548	535,855	168,114	781,517	781,517
Hayti,.....	1,125,970	235,523	24,874	1,386,367	1,386,367
Texas,.....	47,597	45,573	662,154	755,324	755,324
Mexico,.....	1,203,923	422,640	76,373	1,702,936	1,702,936
Gen. Rep. of America,.....	30,135	27,897	7,237	65,269	65,269
New Grenada,.....	85,114	83,827	2,980	171,921	171,921
Venezuela,.....	670,337	451,611	146,327	1,268,275	1,268,275
Brazil,.....	4,519,000	1,233,219	332,380	6,084,599	6,084,599
Cisplatine Republic,.....	20,573	20,573	20,573
Argentine Republic,.....	941	1,747,181	2,576	1,750,698	1,750,698
Chili,.....	941,329	181,807	554	1,123,690	1,123,690
Peru,.....	199,181	117,316	19,615	336,112	336,112
China,.....	5,782,295	476,970	1,026,649	7,285,914	7,285,914
Asia, generally,.....	12,186	74,492	19,432	106,110	106,110
Africa, generally,.....	270,375	292,233	9,518	572,126	572,126
South Seas and Pac. ocean, ..	133,603	2,750	212	136,565	136,565
Northwest coast of America, ..	245	245	245
Sandwich islands,.....	1,030	536	1,566	1,566

Total,..... 22,147,840 60,191,862 34,914,862 117,254,564 117,254,564

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF EACH STATE AND TERRITORY OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1845.
Statement of the Commerce of each State, &c., from the 1st of July, 1844, to the 30th of June, 1845.

STATES.	VALUE OF EXPORTS.				VALUE OF IMPORTS.			
	DOMESTIC PRODUCE.		FOREIGN PRODUCE.		Total of Ameri- can and For- eign produce.	In American vessels.	In Foreign vessels.	Total.
	In American vessels.	In Foreign vessels.	Total.	Total.				
Maine.....	\$1,034,306	\$133,334	\$1,167,640	\$87,465	\$1,255,105	\$694,748	\$160,897	\$855,645
N. Hampshire.....	1,469	905	2,374	10	2,384	18,919	3,770	22,689
Vermont.....	213,976	213,976	328,631	542,607	81,997	81,997
Massachusetts.....	6,918,733	837,663	7,756,396	2,594,634	10,351,030	18,150,295	4,630,729	22,781,024
Rhode Island.....	190,141	190,141	891	191,032	273,380	950	274,330
Connecticut.....	913,775	47,035	960,810	8,245	969,055	358,421	13,654	372,075
New York.....	20,837,757	5,092,147	25,929,904	7,907,018	36,175,298	63,460,879	7,448,206	70,909,085
New Jersey.....	2,879,169	250,509	3,129,678	3,129,678	177	652	829
Pennsylvania.....	135,048	3,147	138,195	444,685	3,574,363	7,500,165	659,062	8,159,227
Delaware.....	3,884,506	1,061,731	4,946,237	275,740	5,221,977	3,408,217	273,587	3,741,804
Maryland.....	418,902	90,527	509,429	735	510,164	61,586	8,943	70,529
Dis. of Col.....	1,903,018	198,027	2,101,045	3,536	2,104,581	261,501	6,157	267,658
Virginia.....	339,763	40,197	379,960	5,878	379,960	231,037	9,433	230,470
N. Carolina.....	6,669,848	2,184,922	8,854,770	22,954	8,890,648	940,815	202,343	1,143,158
S. Carolina.....	2,733,983	1,833,452	4,567,435	22,954	4,557,435	150,312	55,989	206,301
Georgia.....	6,615,568	3,899,706	10,515,274	1,316,154	10,538,228	185,177	288,314	473,491
Alabama.....	18,267,813	7,573,498	25,841,311	642,365	27,157,465	6,351,024	1,003,373	7,354,397
Louisiana.....	738	738
Mississippi.....	6,929	6,929
Tennessee.....	54,429	54,429
Missouri.....	64,079	257,035	321,114	321,114	71,730	6,466	78,196
Ohio.....	17,469	17,469
Kentucky.....	251,220	251,220	251,220	41,952	41,952
Michigan.....	1,190,049	312,318	1,502,867	1,514,475	64,310	43,558	107,868
Florida.....
Total.....	\$75,483,123	\$23,816,653	\$99,299,776	\$11,459,319	\$114,646,606	102,428,481	\$14,816,083	\$117,254,564

VALUE OF THE IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1845.

Statistical view of the Commerce of the United States, exhibiting the value of exports to, and imports from, each foreign country, during the year ending on the 30th of June, 1845.

Countries.	VALUE OF EXPORTS.			VAL. OF IMP.
	Dom. produce.	For. produce.	Total.	
Russia,.....	\$536,845	\$190,492	\$727,337	\$1,492,262
Prussia,.....	502,007	65,114	567,121	31,082
Sweden and Norway,.....	250,567	22,761	273,328	627,938
Swedish West Indies,.....	88,886	1,453	90,339	12,119
Denmark,.....	124,666	20,501	145,167	22,429
Danish West Indies,.....	833,503	160,926	994,429	760,809
Hanse Towns,.....	4,106,927	838,093	4,945,020	2,912,537
Holland,.....	2,753,780	268,267	3,022,047	954,344
Dutch East Indies,.....	129,151	72,007	201,158	538,608
Dutch West Indies,.....	304,080	33,708	337,788	363,324
Dutch Guiana,.....	47,737	1,872	49,609	41,347
Belgium,.....	1,495,754	355,319	1,851,073	709,562
England,.....	41,518,934	4,767,244	46,286,178	44,687,859
Scotland,.....	2,611,874	54,936	2,666,810	708,187
Ireland,.....	103,471	103,471	104,857
Gibraltar,.....	426,107	163,564	589,671	92,118
Malta,.....	12,909	12,909	22,311
British East Indies,.....	297,331	134,067	431,398	1,276,534
Australia,.....	69,521	790	70,311
Cape of Good Hope,.....	33,743	33,743	26,439
Mauritius,.....	12,935	12,935
Honduras,.....	188,494	51,421	239,915	204,818
British Guiana,.....	416,867	1,881	418,748	7,957
British West Indies,.....	4,087,500	36,720	4,124,220	752,580
British N. American colonies, ..	4,844,966	1,209,260	6,054,226	2,020,065
France on the Atlantic,.....	11,350,432	2,972,253	14,322,685	20,181,250
France on the Mediterranean, ..	979,739	197,980	1,177,719	1,414,175
French West Indies,.....	542,455	21,648	564,103	415,032
Miquelon, and Fr. fisheries,	151
French Guiana,.....	57,052	444	57,496	59,306
French African ports,.....	5,508	5,508
Bourbon,.....	16,483	16,483
Spain on the Atlantic,.....	271,233	550	271,783	117,158
Spain on the Mediterranean, ..	55,700	28,808	84,508	954,628
Teneriffe, and other Canaries, ..	5,895	5,895	55,032
Manilla, and Philippine isles, ..	119,263	35,315	154,578	633,059
Cuba,.....	6,203,808	360,946	6,564,754	6,804,414
Other Sp. W. Indies,.....	688,149	20,775	708,924	2,026,253
Portugal,.....	124,350	5,419	129,769	296,908
Madeira,.....	59,312	1,784	61,096	168,674
Fayal, and other Azores,.....	2,831	51	2,882	28,573
Cape de Verd islands,.....	50,599	2,834	53,433	7,759
Italy,.....	587,569	230,352	817,921	1,301,577
Sicily,.....	70,625	334,667	405,292	529,493
Sardinia,.....	162,827	32,970	195,797	19,859
Trieste, and oth. Aus. ports, ..	1,433,103	368,775	1,801,878	321,550
Ionian Republic,.....
Turkey, Levant, and Egypt, ...	115,553	49,546	165,099	781,517
Hayti,.....	1,327,891	77,849	1,405,740	1,386,367
China,.....	2,079,341	196,654	2,275,995	7,285,914
Texas,.....	210,736	153,056	363,792	755,324
Mexico,.....	784,154	368,177	1,152,331	1,702,936
Central America,.....	41,548	26,101	67,649	65,269
New Grenada,.....	48,717	30,260	78,977	171,921
Venezuela,.....	535,545	189,585	725,130	1,268,275
Brazil,.....	2,413,567	424,383	2,837,950	6,084,599
Argentine Republic,.....	342,575	160,431	503,006	1,750,698
Cisplatine Republic,.....	140,986	16,150	157,136	20,573

VALUE OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF U. STATES, IN 1845—CONTINUED.

Countries.	VALUE OF EXPORTS.			VAL. OF IMP.
	Dom. produce.	For. produce.	Total.	
Chili,.....	\$1,247,360	\$300,831	\$1,548,191	\$1,123,690
Peru,.....	33,424	33,424	336,112
South America, generally,.....	75,329	9,910	85,239
Asia, generally,.....	171,803	140,945	312,748	106,110
Africa, generally,.....	525,563	79,543	605,106	572,126
Europe, generally,.....	21,573	21,573
West Indies, generally,.....	182,598	378	182,976
East Indies, generally,.....
South Seas and Pacific ocean,.	416,025	57,064	473,089	136,565
Northwest coast of America,.	245
Sandwich islands,.....	1,566
Uncertain places,.....
Total,.....	\$99,299,776	\$15,346,830	\$114,646,606	\$117,254,564

NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1845.

Tonnage of American and Foreign vessels arriving from, and departing to, each foreign country, during the year ending on the 30th of June, 1845.

Countries.	AMERICAN TONNAGE.		FOREIGN TONNAGE.	
	Ent'd U. S.	Cl'd U. S.	Ent'd U. S.	Cl'd U. S.
Russia,.....	12,603	9,109	1,763	1,906
Prussia,.....	412	947	90	9,521
Sweden and Norway,.....	2,125	349	13,439	6,248
Swedish West Indies,.....	351	2,135
Denmark,.....	1,040	1,157	2,116
Danish West Indies,.....	28,312	28,920	1,669	1,457
Hanse Towns,.....	13,009	16,016	50,825	59,007
Holland,.....	20,207	27,859	5,023	16,547
Dutch East Indies,.....	3,944	4,592
Dutch West Indies,.....	15,041	5,025
Dutch Guiana,.....	6,334	6,740
Belgium,.....	11,740	20,289	2,656	4,542
England,.....	377,198	374,846	196,778	198,921
Scotland,.....	11,955	14,732	21,847	20,810
Ireland,.....	907	1,412	24,136	987
Gibraltar,.....	4,071	11,691	1,905	1,097
Malta,.....	299	954
British East Indies,.....	9,500	10,314	1,163
Australia,.....	413	498
Cape of Good Hope,.....	597
Mauritius,.....	4,548	3,869	887	663
Honduras,.....	4,672	12,325	4,203	2,801
British Guiana,.....	94,990	129,504	39,215	28,122
British West Indies,.....	684,359	677,935	463,748	512,004
British N. American colonies,.	115,740	121,815	9,505	10,036
France on the Atlantic,.....	10,677	19,217	4,599	660
France on the Mediterranean,.	24,709	33,150	4,564	1,294
French West Indies,.....	527	1,825
Miquelon, and Fr. fisheries,....	1,310	1,547
French Guiana,.....	220	364
French African ports,.....	152	368	270
Bourbon,.....	16,643	6,528	1,676	672
Spain on the Atlantic,.....	10,127	3,909	8,074	1,056
Spain on the Mediterranean,...	703	467	1,024	387
Teneriffe, and other Canaries,...	4,025	3,230
Manilla, and Philippine isles,...	193,183	171,892	9,238	16,193
Cuba,.....	51,150	28,575	629	622
Other Spanish West Indies,....	10,266	5,803	1,100	990
Portugal,.....	813	2,081	599	491
Madeira,.....	2,330	184
Fayal, and other Azores,.....	4,256	105	170
Cape de Verd islands,.....	5,186	5,984	3,164	914

NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1845—CONTINUED.

Countries.	AMERICAN TONNAGE.		FOREIGN TONNAGE.	
	Ent'd U. S.	Cl'd U. S.	Ent'd U. S.	Cl'd U. S.
Italy,.....	22,711	445	6,022	3,628
Sicily,.....	1,134	4,332	1,104	1,411
Sardinia,.....	4,422	15,470	2,101	9,198
Trieste, and oth. Aust. ports,...	250
Ionian Republic,.....	5,915	1,897	2,724
Turkey, Levant, and Egypt,...	34,377	27,919	575	534
Hayti,.....	21,204	17,477	478
China,.....	15,740	18,930	1,987	2,221
Texas,.....	16,157	16,952	3,023	4,540
Mexico,.....	1,690	1,049	528	187
Central America,.....	3,569	1,562
New Grenada,.....	12,394	10,733	1,768	1,117
Venezuela,.....	50,230	40,716	2,481	2,077
Brazil,.....	11,653	10,667	1,889	843
Argentine Republic,.....	369	3,252	614
Cisplatine Republic,.....	4,872	8,273
Chili,.....	735	330
Peru,.....	243	1,001
South America, generally,.....	263	673
Asia, generally,.....	15,065	11,731	10,552	2,352
Africa, generally,.....	400
Europe, generally,.....	14,560
West Indies, generally,.....	1,822
South Seas and Pacific ocean,...	57,218	70,282
Northwest coast of America,...	596	1,254
Sandwich islands,.....
Uncertain places,.....	148	451	285
Total,.....	2,035,486	2,053,977	910,563	930,275

TONNAGE OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1845.

Statement exhibiting a condensed view of the Tonnage of the several Districts of the United States, on the 30th day of June, 1845.

Districts.		Registered tonnage.	Enr'd and lic. tonnage. <i>Tons and 95ths.</i>	Tot. tonnage of each dist.
Pasamaquoddy,	Maine,.....	4,524 35	6,836 32	11,360 67
Machias,	"	360 37	11,692 74	12,053 16
Frenchman's Bay,	"	1,989 26	20,314 91	22,304 22
Penobscot,	"	6,520 49	24,836 05	31,356 54
Belfast,	"	3,243 82	28,197 87	31,440 74
Waldcborough,	"	20,374 86	37,932 47	58,307 38
Wiscasset,	"	5,584 29	10,547 80	16,132 14
Bath,	"	41,986 54	20,399 33	62,385 87
Portland,	"	44,352 87	19,838 73	64,191 65
Saco,	"	335 66	1,965 29	2,301 00
Kennebunk,	"	4,708 81	2,312 30	7,021 16
York,	"	152 58	1,051 31	1,203 89
Burlington,	Vermont,.....	2,318 73	2,318 73
Portsmouth,	New Hampshire,....	14,849 45	8,921 30	23,770 75
Newburyport,	Massachusetts,.....	16,586 32	5,396 59	21,982 91
Ipswich,	"
Gloucester,	"	2,380 34	14,748 83	17,129 22
Salem,	"	18,781 31	11,181 93	29,963 29
Beverly,	"	913 53	913 53
Marblehead,	"	1,849 31	8,121 32	9,970 63
Boston,	"	187,712 50	40,282 04	227,994 54
Plymouth,	"	5,568 18	8,055 74	13,623 92
Fall River,	"	3,004 21	5,162 54	8,166 65
New Bedford,	"	103,428 17	8,893 20	112,321 37
Barnstable,	"	6,308 36	36,694 28	43,002 64

TONNAGE OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1845—CONTINUED.

Districts.		Registered tonnage.	Enr'lied and lic. tonnage. <i>Tons and 95ths.</i>	Tot. tonnage of each dist.
Edgartown,	Massachusetts,.....	7,146 94	1,126 66	8,273 65
Nantucket,	"	28,690 33	2,962 12	31,652 15
Providence,	Rhode Island,.....	14,557 31	6,533 22	21,090 63
Bristol,	"	11,163 01	2,541 71	13,704 72
Newport,	"	7,082 08	5,331 49	12,413 57
Middletown,	Connecticut,.....	974 71	8,507 41	9,482 17
New London,	"	30,113 83	10,452 19	40,566 07
Stonington,	"	11,427 10	6,147 36	17,574 46
New Haven,	"	4,788 66	5,545 80	10,334 51
Fairfield,	"	1,063 55	12,547 28	13,610 83
Champlain,	New York,.....	3,192 34	3,192 34
Sackett's Harbor,	"	3,419 77	3,419 77
Oswego,	"	11,410 55	11,410 55
Niagara,	"	12 49	12 49
Genesee,	"	235 05	235 05
Oswegatchie,	"	1,455 79	1,455 79
Buffalo,	"	24,770 29	24,770 29
Sag Harbor,	"	22,166 90	6,181 47	28,348 42
New York,	"	248,717 00	301,642 48	550,359 48
Cape Vincent,	"	2,670 58	2,670 58
Perth Amboy,	New Jersey,.....	19,247 05	19,247 05
Bridgetown,	"	627 82	10,445 55	11,073 42
Burlington,	"	4,091 72	4,091 72
Camden,	"	5,829 73	5,829 73
Newark,	"	84 68	16,348 79	16,433 52
Little Egg Harbor,	"	4,711 72	4,711 72
Great Egg Harbor,	"	8,583 10	8,583 10
Philadelphia,	Pennsylvania,.....	39,274 44	91,132 44	130,406 88
Presqu' Isle,	"	4,121 80	4,121 80
Pittsburgh,	"	13,283 47	13,283 47
Wilmington,	Delaware,.....	2,329 78	4,212 54	6,542 37
Newcastle,	"	5,392 22	5,392 22
Baltimore,	Maryland,.....	44,767 70	38,833 61	83,601 36
Oxford,	"	9,059 76	9,059 76
Vienna,	"	337 75	12,993 40	13,331 20
Snow Hill,	"	6,584 49	6,584 49
St. Mary's,	"	1,687 57	1,687 57
Town Creek,	"	1,441 10	1,441 10
Annapolis,	"	259 88	2,198 82	2,458 75
Georgetown,	Dia. of Columbia,.....	3,055 82	7,534 31	10,590 18
Alexandria,	"	5,818 58	4,208 32	10,026 90
Norfolk,	Virginia,.....	10,101 41	10,691 34	20,792 75
Petersburgh,	"	731 24	731 24
Richmond,	"	3,504 47	5,047 20	8,551 67
Yorktown,	"	2,801 40	2,801 40
East River,	"	3,527 05	3,527 05
Tappahannock,	"	319 18	4,634 39	4,953 57
Folly Landing,	"
Accomac C. H.,	"	2,894 06	2,894 06
Yeocomico,	"	3,116 64	3,116 64
Cherrystone,	"	62 52	1,777 21	1,839 73
Wheeling,	"	1,487 91	1,487 91
Wilmington,	North Carolina,.....	11,472 01	3,770 70	15,242 71
Newbern,	"	1,531 52	2,914 94	4,446 51
Washington,	"	1,179 79	2,488 53	3,668 37
Edenton,	"	158 03	1,223 40	1,381 43
Camden,	"	733 04	8,784 20	9,517 24
Beaufort,	"	239 92	239 92
Plymouth,	"	519 20	1,221 65	1,740 85
Ocracoke,	"	1,271 90	1,194 20	2,466 15

TONNAGE OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1845—CONTINUED.

Districts.		Registered tonnage.	Enr'led and lic. tonnage. <i>Tons and 95ths.</i>	Tot. tonnage of each dist.
Charleston,	South Carolina,.....	8,224 67	9,948 80	18,173 52
Beaufort,	"	239 92	239 92
Georgetown,	"	169 38	1,032 31	1,201 69
Savannah,	Georgia,	8,117 73	7,099 55	15,217 33
Sunbury,	"
Brunswick,	"	147 84	147 84
Hardwick,	"
St. Mary's,	"	458 27	316 77	775 09
Pensacola,	Florida,.....	1,276 60	1,046 37	2,323 02
St. Augustine,	"	360 55	149 69	510 29
Apalachicola,	"	70 81	2,916 92	2,987 78
St. Mark's,	"	142 18	142 18
St. John's,	"	309 13	309 13
Key West,	"	3,284 65	1,798 10	5,082 75
Mobile,	Alabama,.....	5,287 31	12,622 27	17,909 58
Pearl River,	Mississippi,.....	1,055 43	1,055 43
New Orleans,	Louisiana,.....	58,018 18	111,753 42	169,771 60
Teche,	"	753 58	753 58
Nashville,	Tennessee,	2,809 23	2,809 23
Louisville,	Kentucky,.....	8,751 02	8,751 02
St. Louis,	Missouri,.....	18,905 69	18,905 69
Cuyahoga,	Ohio,.....	17,562 35	17,562 35
Sandusky,	"	1,392 61	1,392 61
Cincinnati,	"	14,403 21	14,403 21
Miami,	"	1,915 43	1,915 43
Detroit,	Michigan,.....	19,251 29	19,251 29
Michilimackinac,	"	524 38	524 38
Total,.....		1,095,172 44	1,321,829 57	2,417,002 06

VESSELS BUILT IN EACH STATE, IN 1845.

A Statement of the number and class of vessels built, and the tonnage thereof, in each State and Territory of the United States, for the year ending 30th June, 1845.

States.	Ships.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Sl'ps and canal-bts.	St'mb'ts.	Total.	TOT. TON'GE. Tons & 95ths.
Maine,.....	43	33	82	2	160	31,105 04
New Hampshire,.....	4	1	5	2,501 08
Vermont,.....
Massachusetts,.....	42	16	54	1	2	115	25,961 50
Rhode Island,.....	3	2	2	1	8	1,661 26
Connecticut,.....	1	2	16	2	1	22	2,607 76
New York,.....	18	7	35	153	17	230	29,342 60
New Jersey,.....	1	4	9	45	5	64	4,465 06
Pennsylvania,.....	6	4	7	107	54	178	15,819 17
Delaware,.....	8	1	9	668 91
Maryland,.....	4	15	47	66	7,257 44
Virginia,.....	2	1	5	3	3	14	2,056 59
North Carolina,.....	10	3	1	14	859 72
South Carolina,.....	2	2	102 10
Georgia,.....	1	1	83 14
Florida,.....	3	1	4	257 04
Alabama,.....	1	1	79 70
Mississippi,.....
Louisiana,.....	6	2	6	14	626 62
Tennessee,.....	1	1	141 47
Kentucky,.....	26	26	5,681 01
Missouri,.....
Ohio,.....	4	10	42	56	11,599 39
Michigan,.....	24	9	4	37	2,725 65
District of Columbia,.	15	15	416 32
Total,.....	124	87	322	342	163	1,038	146,018 02

TONNAGE CLEARED FROM EACH STATE, ETC., OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1845.

STATES.	AMERICAN.				FOREIGN.				TOTAL AMERICAN AND FOREIGN.			
	No.	Tons.	Crews.		No.	Tons.	Crews.		No.	Tons.	Crews.	
			Men.	Boys.			Men.	Boys.			Men.	Boys.
Maine,.....	492	88,602	3,592	197	796	62,901	3,539	61	1,988	151,503	7,131	258
New Hampshire,....	2	169	8	2	56	2,849	189	58	3,018	197	2
Vermont,.....	265	52,728	1,492	588	265	52,728	1,492	588
Massachusetts,....	1,056	231,096	12,197	198	2,557	122,912	7,854	2	2,613	333,308	20,051	200
Rhode Island,....	81	14,598	810	43	2	196	11	83	14,794	821	43
Connecticut,.....	159	37,086	2,346	173	18	2,101	104	177	39,187	2,450	173
New York,.....	3,385	936,280	52,083	981	2,148	414,688	29,687	381	5,533	1,340,968	81,770	1,362
New Jersey,.....
Pennsylvania,.....	341	63,271	2,855	231	63	12,987	536	74	404	76,258	3,391	305
Delaware,.....	32	4,953	250	1	1	100	6	33	5,053	256	1
Maryland,.....	344	69,716	3,123	106	22,342	1,134	450	92,058	4,257
Dis. of Columbia,...	64	10,772	452	13	19	2,529	133	2	83	13,301	585	15
Virginia,.....	175	36,180	1,535	19	4,521	200	194	40,701	1,735
North Carolina,....	284	39,757	1,937	3	36	5,170	258	320	44,927	2,195	3
South Carolina,....	328	86,768	3,474	32	126	33,912	1,271	200	454	120,680	4,745	232
Georgia,.....	127	40,410	1,509	76	35,250	1,265	203	75,660	2,744
Alabama,.....	190	80,032	2,766	116	62,491	2,411	306	142,523	5,177
Louisiana,.....	639	243,543	8,584	331	129,561	5,135	970	373,104	13,989
Mississippi,.....
Tennessee,.....
Missouri,.....
Ohio,.....	77	6,324	338	13	1,201	60	90	7,525	398
Kentucky,.....
Michigan,.....	14	1,807	103	62	8,542	481	76	10,349	584
Florida,.....	142	19,885	1,070	38	6,722	383	180	26,607	1,453
Total,.....	8,197	2,053,977	100,794	2,462	5,563	930,275	54,657	720	13,780	2,984,952	155,451	3,182

TONNAGE ENTERED INTO EACH STATE, ETC., OF THE UNITED STATES IN 1845.

STATES.	AMERICAN.				FOREIGN.				TOTAL AMERICAN AND FOREIGN.			
	No.	Tonn.	Crews.		No.	Tonn.	Crews.		No.	Tonn.	Crews.	
			Men.	Boys.			Men.	Boys.			Men.	Boys.
Maine,	270	54,029	2,101	116	805	63,336	3,564	62	1,075	117,365	5,665	178
New Hampshire,	11	5,027	135	27	55	2,805	191	66	7,832	326	27
Vermont,	276	53,456	1,536	600	276	53,456	1,536	600
Massachusetts,	1,304	276,589	13,010	385	1,571	118,398	8,099	2	2,775	394,987	21,109	387
Rhode Island,	100	20,481	1,107	21	2	196	11	102	20,677	1,118	21
Connecticut,	131	27,713	1,718	50	17	1,844	98	148	29,557	1,816	50
New York,	3,741	1,037,370	56,231	1,065	2,185	413,340	30,179	384	5,926	1,450,710	86,430	1,449
New Jersey,	1	62	5	1	62	5
Pennsylvania,	344	77,335	3,263	268	77	14,065	625	87	421	91,400	3,888	355
Delaware,	12	1,597	109	1	100	6	13	1,697	115
Maryland,	286	59,944	2,566	98	20,076	1,028	384	80,020	3,594
District of Columbia,	30	5,294	230	4	18	2,232	120	2	48	7,526	350	6
Virginia,	60	10,642	482	10	1,290	79	70	11,932	561
North Carolina,	246	33,456	1,653	10	38	5,276	266	284	38,732	1,889	10
South Carolina,	208	40,334	1,853	16	98	31,856	1,248	163	306	72,190	3,071	179
Georgia,	67	15,082	623	72	33,816	1,248	139	48,898	1,871
Alabama,	137	47,654	1,720	117	62,952	2,413	254	110,606	4,133
Louisiana,	752	237,968	9,029	320	126,719	5,203	1,072	363,987	14,232
Mississippi,
Tennessee,
Missouri,
Ohio,	61	3,864	221	7	609	30	68	4,473	251
Kentucky,
Michigan,	11	693	39	61	6,694	516	72	7,387	555
Florida,	186	27,658	1,434	37	4,897	386	223	32,555	1,820
Total,	8,133	2,035,486	99,020	2,562	5,590	910,563	55,315	700	13,723	2,946,049	154,335	3,262

PROGRESS OF THE TONNAGE OF THE UNITED STATES, IN THIRTY-ONE YEARS.

A comparative view of the registered and enrolled tonnage of the United States: showing the registered tonnage employed in the whole fishery; also, the proportion of the enrolled and licensed tonnage employed in the coasting trade, cod fishery, mackerel fishery, and whale fishery, from 1815 to 1845, inclusive

Years.	Regist'd tonnage.	Enr'd & lic. tonnage.	Total tonnage.	(Registered tonnage) employed in the whole fishery.	Coasting trade.	Cod fishery.	Mackerel fishery.	Whale fishery.
1815,.....	854,294 74	513,833 04	1,368,127 78	435,066 87	26,510 33	1,229 92
1816,.....	800,759 63	571,458 85	1,372,218 48	479,979 14	37,879 30	1,168 00
1817,.....	809,724 70	590,186 66	1,399,911 41	4,874 41	481,457 92	53,990 26	349 92
1818,.....	606,088 64	619,095 51	1,225,184 20	16,134 77	503,140 37	58,551 72	614 63
1819,.....	612,930 44	647,821 17	1,260,751 61	37,700 40	523,556 20	65,044 92	686 35
1820,.....	619,047 53	661,118 66	1,280,166 24	35,391 44	539,080 46	60,842 55	1,033 66
1821,.....	619,896 40	679,062 30	1,298,958 70	26,070 83	559,435 57	51,351 49	1,924 40
1822,.....	628,150 41	696,548 71	1,324,699 17	45,449 42	573,080 02	58,405 35	3,133 50
1823,.....	639,920 76	696,644 87	1,336,565 68	39,918 13	566,408 88	67,626 14	585 37
1824,.....	669,972 60	719,190 37	1,389,163 02	33,165 70	589,223 01	68,419 00	180 08
1825,.....	700,787 08	722,323 69	1,423,110 77	35,379 24	587,973 07	70,626 02
1826,.....	737,978 15	796,211 68	1,534,189 83	41,757 32	666,420 44	63,761 42	296 83
1827,.....	747,170 44	873,437 34	1,620,607 78	45,653 21	732,937 65	74,048 81	338 94
1828,.....	812,619 34	928,772 52	1,741,391 87	54,621 08	758,922 12	74,945 74	180 34
1829,.....	650,142 88	610,654 88	1,260,797 81	57,284 38	508,858 10	101,796 78
1830,.....	576,475 33	615,311 10	1,191,776 43	38,911 82	516,978 18	61,554 57	792 87
1831,.....	620,451 92	647,394 32	1,267,846 29	82,315 79	539,723 74	60,977 81	481 82
1832,.....	686,989 77	752,460 39	1,439,450 21	72,868 84	649,627 40	54,027 70	377 47
1833,.....	750,126 72	856,123 22	1,606,249 94	101,158 17	744,198 60	62,720 70	478 39
1834,.....	857,438 42	901,468 67	1,758,907 14	108,060 14	783,618 65	56,403 70	364 16
1835,.....	885,821 60	939,118 49	1,824,940 15	97,640 00	792,301 20	72,374 18
1836,.....	897,774 51	984,328 14	1,882,102 65	144,680 50	873,023 21	63,307 37	1,573 26
1837,.....	910,447 29	1,086,238 40	1,996,685 69	137,241 81	956,980 60	46,810 90	1,894 86
1838,.....	822,591 86	1,173,047 89	1,995,639 80	119,629 89	1,041,105 18	70,064 00	5,229 55
1839,.....	834,244 54	1,262,234 27	2,096,478 81	131,845 25	1,153,551 80	72,258 68	439 69
1840,.....	899,764 76	1,280,999 35	2,180,764 16	136,926 64	1,176,694 46	76,035 65
1841,.....	1,184,940 90	1,184,940 90	2,369,744 37	157,405 17	1,107,067 88	66,551 84	377 31
1842,.....	975,358 74	1,117,031 90	2,092,390 69	151,612 74	1,045,753 39	54,804 02	142 33
1843,.....	1,009,305 01	1,149,297 92	2,158,601 93	152,374 86	1,076,155 59	61,224 25	320 14
1844,.....	1,068,764 91	1,211,330 11	2,280,095 07	168,293 63	1,109,614 44	85,224 77	206 92
1845,.....	1,095,172 44	1,321,829 57	2,417,002 06	190,695 65	1,190,898 27	69,825 66

VESSELS BUILT IN THE UNITED STATES IN THIRTY-ONE YEARS.

Statement showing the number and class of vessels built in the several States and Territories of the United States, from 1815 to 1845, inclusive.

Years.	Ships.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Sloops and canal-b'rs.	St'mers.	Total.	TOT. TON'S. Tons. 95ths.
1815,.....	136	224	680	274	1,314	154,624 39
1816,.....	76	121	781	424	1,403	131,668 04
1817,.....	34	86	559	394	1,073	86,393 37
1818,.....	53	85	428	332	898	82,421 20
1819,.....	53	82	473	242	850	79,817 86
1820,.....	21	60	301	152	534	47,784 01
1821,.....	43	89	248	127	507	55,856 01
1822,.....	64	131	260	168	623	75,346 93
1823,.....	55	127	260	165	15	622	75,007 57
1824,.....	56	156	377	166	26	781	90,939 00
1825,.....	56	197	538	168	35	994	114,997 25
1826,.....	71	187	482	227	45	1,012	126,438 35
1827,.....	58	133	464	241	38	934	104,342 67
1828,.....	73	108	474	196	33	884	98,375 58
1829,.....	44	68	485	145	43	785	77,098 65
1830,.....	25	56	403	116	37	637	58,094 24
1831,.....	72	95	416	94	34	711	85,962 68
1832,.....	132	143	568	122	100	1,065	144,539 16
1833,.....	144	169	625	185	65	1,188	161,626 36
1834,.....	98	94	497	180	68	937	118,330 27
1835,.....	25	50	302	100	30	507	*46,238 52
1836,.....	93	65	444	164	124	890	113,627 49
1837,.....	67	72	507	168	135	949	122,987 22
1838,.....	66	79	510	153	90	898	113,135 44
1839,.....	83	89	439	122	125	858	120,988 34
1840,.....	97	109	378	224	64	872	118,309 23
1841,.....	114	101	312	157	78	762	118,893 71
1842,.....	116	91	273	404	137	1,021	128,083 64
1843, for 9 mos.,	58	34	138	173	79	482	63,617 77
1844,.....	73	47	204	279	163	766	103,537 29
1845,.....	124	87	322	342	163	1,038	146,018 02

SHIPPING OF THE PORT OF PHILADELPHIA.

We published in the Merchants' Magazine for November, 1845, (Vol. xiii., No. 5,) a tabular statement of the shipping of all denominations, owned in New York, prepared by Mr. J. Dodge, Jr., a clerk in the naval office, and in the number for January, 1846, (Vol. xiv., No. 1,) a similar account of the shipping of Boston, politely furnished by the Hon. MARCUS MORTON, the Collector of that port. For the following corresponding statement of the shipping of Philadelphia, we are indebted, as will be seen by the annexed note, to HENRY HORN, Esq., the Collector of Customs for the port of Philadelphia. According to the last annual report of the Secretary of the Treasury, the aggregate tonnage of the district of Philadelphia, on the last day of June, 1845, was 130,406.88; that of Boston, 227,994.54; and that of New York district, 550,359.48.*

COLLECTOR'S OFFICE, District of Philadelphia, 19th March, 1846.

SIR—I send you herewith a table of the number, names, and tonnage of vessels employed at this place. It is as nearly correct as we can make it, from the data in this office.

Very respectfully yours, &c.

HENRY HORN, Collector.

FREEMAN HUNT, Esq.

* For tonnage of the several collection districts of the United States, in 1845, see pages 473, 474, 475, of the present number of this Magazine.

STATEMENT OF THE NAMES AND TONNAGE OF VESSELS BELONGING TO THE PORT OF PHILADELPHIA.

Ships.

<i>Names.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Names.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Names.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
Alleghany,	398.46	Monongahela,	496.88	Swatara,	747.92
Commerce,	430.82	North Star,	398.81	Saranak,	816.15
Champlain,	624.46	Ondiaka,	748.55	Stephen Baldwin,	634.74
Caledonia Brander,	548.82	Shenandoah,	738.30	Thomas C. Cope,	727.70
Globe,	479.19	Shanunga,	546.40	Tartar,	573.33
Georgiana,	544.70	Susquehannah,	583.64	Venice,	558.00
Lehigh,	541.80	St. Louis,	344.68	Wyoming,	891.02
Levant,	465.33				

Barks.

Ann Hood,	312.47	Harriet Thompson,	238.48	Navarre,	242.38
Anna Reynolds,	197.36	James Bayley,	207.53	Ohio,	237.45
Coosa,	258.68	J. Welsh,	196.78	Osceola,	264.42
Cora,	166.03	Josephine,	324.92	Paez,	235.68
Chester,	326.33	Levant,	146.70	Pons,	196.57
Delaware,	198.19	Lydia Ann,	198.00	St. Cloud,	239.24
Elizabeth J.,	166.32	Louisa,	182.53	Swan,	243.04
Fairmount,	206.25	Madeline,	293.03	Sarah Hand,	282.31
Globe,	260.30	Manchester,	379.55	Venezuela,	215.16
Georgiana,	279.40	Nashua,	285.26		

Brigs.

Ada Eliza,	139.44	Emily Cummings,	155.06	Paul T. Jones,	174.40
Adele,	180.74	Elizabeth,	152.01	Pennsylvania,	205.16
Adeline,	197.00	Fairy,	165.91	Putnam,	187.50
Betsey and Jane,	153.75	Genius,	128.92	Rowena,	161.74
Brandywine,	207.58	Gardner H. Wright,	135.00	R. F. Loper,	167.57
Caspian,	148.51	Huntress,	166.40	Rebecca,	197.13
Caraccas,	172.37	Independence,	225.30	Seaman,	124.34
Consort,	225.02	Ida,	175.47	Swan,	180.10
Cumberland,	155.12	John Potter,	165.91	Ursula,	106.09
Clara,	150.05	J. Cohen, Jr.,	149.72	Vesper,	127.38
Delaware,	186.23	Jane,	168.53	Wm. J. Watson,	149.19
Despatch,	180.10	Jos. Cowperthwait,	170.49	Will,	156.28
Ducamin,	164.29	Madrid,	155.91	Wissahickon,	166.36
David Duffel,	188.76	Mary,	123.81	Wm. Price,	239.37
E. D. Wolfe,	168.38	Norris Stanley,	177.09		

Schooners.

Angeline,	110.13	Cath. Amanda,	87.39	Excellent,	67.78
American Eagle,	125.65	Comet,	71.78	Factor,	98.53
Ann Stille,	117.01	Chapman Keeler,	45.41	Friendship,	38.87
Augustus Lord,	79.81	Defiance,	76.60	Frances Jane,	37.49
Augusta,	99.00	Driver,	138.03	Florida,	29.81
Armer Patton,	167.29	Deborah and Sally,	20.81	Gilbert Hatfield,	140.85
Albion,	45.26	Delaware,	169.76	Gen. Warren,	128.55
Ashland,	66.89	Damsel,	31.19	Gen. Scott,	80.06
Angel R. Thompson,	97.70	Emeline,	121.33	Gardner H. Wright,	135.39
Ann Orelia,	51.48	Ezra Wheeler,	136.34	Gen. Marion,	37.28
Baltimore,	98.50	Euphrates,	84.78	Gen. Patterson,	159.50
Brave,	32.00	Elizabeth,	114.34	Geo. M. Dallas,	30.17
C. E. Stockton,	113.80	Elizabeth Ann,	54.55	Gil Blas,	96.52
C. M. Thompson,	106.91	Enoch E. Turley,	90.16	George and Jane,	60.73
Caspian,	90.48	Eliza Jane,	20.91	Gen. Pike,	47.48
Charlotte Harper,	129.52	Emma,	134.42	Geo. Washington,	29.14
Commodator,	26.69	Elizabeth Ellen,	22.06	Gratitude,	97.85
Chas. D. Ellis,	128.08	Eliza Ann Ballard,	48.12	Gen. Jackson,	29.12
Chief,	145.12	Ellen,	165.50	Gen. Isaac Davis,	70.81
Columbus,	53.40	Edmund S. Conner,	20.35	George,	25.79
Cath. H. Brown,	75.77	Ellsler,	23.10	Gov. Bennett,	60.25
Columbia,	112.19	Elizabeth,	36.36	H. Westcott,	122.40

Names.	Tons.	Names.	Tons.	Names.	Tons.
Henry Cameron,	89.87	Lady Helen Mar,	35.61	Spartan,	47.72
Henry W. Safford,	108.30	Lincoln Hero,	46.51	Sarah,	83.61
Henry,	63.46	Monsoon,	99.54	Select,	90.50
Henry G. King,	141.00	Mary Patton,	133.30	Splendid,	28.13
Herald,	76.80	Mary Ann,	41.16	Swallow,	20.33
Heart of Oak,	20.85	Maria,	20.14	Superb,	123.87
Henry Chase,	129.67	Mercy,	99.48	Sally Ann Martha,	22.83
H. C. Corbit,	67.44	Mary,	45.30	Samuel Castner,	143.13
Harriet and Hannah,	63.29	Mary Esther,	42.52	Somers,	127.38
Henry Clay,	66.46	Margaret,	20.34	Susannah & Phœbe,	101.90
Ida,	80.12	Mary Jane,	27.33	Samuel R. Paynter,	109.31
Isaac Townsend,	123.05	Margetta,	22.00	S. H. Gillingham,	51.15
Indiana,	85.47	Martin,	49.52	Signet,	64.69
Increase,	135.43	Ninetta,	112.92	Sally Ann,	30.00
Ino,	23.59	Ninetta,	128.45	Star,	20.34
Isaac Tunnell,	98.06	North Carolina,	116.71	Sarah Churchman,	139.39
John M'Crea,	124.28	News,	118.15	Samuel Smith,	28.76
J. & W. Errickson,	173.17	Northampton,	47.80	Swan,	23.26
Jonath. Wainwright,	147.68	New Zealand,	119.41	Spray,	37.12
John M'Cling,	120.10	N. L. M'Cready,	129.10	Singe Cat,	26.80
Joseph Stewart,	73.89	Nameoka,	51.60	Sarah Ann,	34.46
James W. Caldwell,	54.70	Orator,	71.80	Squire & Brothers,	162.72
James P. Lofland,	127.80	Osceola,	127.37	Talbot,	57.28
John and Ann,	22.34	Oceana,	40.43	Theodore,	34.52
Joseph Rushling,	111.44	Odd Fellow,	81.86	Trapper,	21.08
J. R. Thompson,	54.07	Paragon,	117.83	Thorn,	140.88
Joseph Lybrand,	109.34	Palestine,	131.12	Temperance,	52.15
Joseph Brown,	129.75	Pennsylvania,	136.03	Thos. A. Morgan,	138.08
John Stull,	105.73	Pilot,	117.61	United States,	24.69
John Randolph,	98.35	Pampero,	195.57	Union,	87.90
James F. Bertine,	150.00	Post Boy,	24.60	Wm. Spear,	128.35
John Moore,	33.31	Peytona,	29.35	Wm. J. Watson,	151.80
Lewis Puleskie,	47.14	P. B. Savery,	127.28	Wm. D. Waples,	56.48
Lady of the Lake,	43.11	Pacific,	27.30	Wm. Penn,	30.74
La Fayette,	48.76	Patriot,	71.38	Wm. Smith,	22.88
La Grange,	134.42	Peter D. Lambert,	23.45	Wm. Travers,	25.56
Louisa,	67.67	Peter Kern,	44.42	Wood Duck,	20.45
Lois,	74.02	R. Tomlin,	124.00	W. H. Gatzmer,	74.86
Liberty,	38.67	Roanoke,	179.75	William & Elizabeth,	47.51
Lea,	31.32	Republican,	87.31	Wm. H. Barker,	38.20
Lark,	73.47	Rynear Williams,	71.89	Wm. J. B. Andrews,	65.23
Leader,	127.13	Rush,	46.79	William,	20.48
Lygonia,	147.78	Robert P. Glover,	83.49	Young Mechanic,	24.45

Sloops.

Avalinda,	21.87	Canton,	43.47	Friendship,	59.47
Abigail and Keziah,	42.32	Dolphin,	32.37	Fourth of July,	42.71
Asa Gibbs,	35.61	Democrat,	43.31	Fashion,	42.52
Abigail,	39.42	De Witt Clinton,	29.61	Franklin W. Stoy,	37.15
Algonquin,	40.17	Delaware,	45.03	Frances Jane,	20.65
Ann Eliza,	41.07	Exchange,	30.28	Franklin,	22.53
Ariel,	42.66	Ellen Z.,	46.69	Frances,	32.76
Anna and Mary Ann,	49.49	Enterprise,	35.19	Gen. Jackson,	60.61
Boxer,	41.63	Enterprise,	37.00	Gen. Bloomfield,	29.80
Bonnets of Blue,	41.13	Eliza M'Donald,	38.71	Gardiner,	34.63
Brandywine,	38.25	Elizabeth,	34.60	Great Western,	29.17
Col. S. H. Coates,	31.33	Eagle,	35.26	Gleaner,	35.23
Cleopatra,	20.54	Elizabeth Beatty,	32.15	George Washington,	45.27
Cedarville,	37.92	Fame,	41.71	Gen. Harrison,	36.87
Cultivator,	47.07	Friendship,	21.31	Good Friends,	61.11
Centurion,	26.76	Fair Trader,	42.65	Harriet,	53.00
Chrissinda,	46.17	French Creek,	43.69	Hunter,	38.91
Countess,	25.09	Farmer,	32.47	Hannah and Ellen,	45.53

Names.	Tons.	Names.	Tons.	Names.	Tons.
Herald,	35.36	Matilda and Louisa,	53.93	Sailor,	37.41
Hartford,	33.62	Mary Smith,	36.13	Susan Eliza,	36.80
Henry Clay,	29.29	Martha,	41.25	Stafford,	57.28
Hannah and Isabella,	48.27	Miller,	37.70	Seven Brothers,	46.62
Hope,	30.20	Mohawk,	39.77	Sarah Jane,	48.43
Henry,	30.65	Mariner,	21.64	Swan,	41.89
Harmony,	43.66	Margaret,	26.45	Sarah Ann,	29.60
Henry Hoover,	41.32	Martin Van Buren,	27.49	Sarah Ann,	23.46
Hornet,	41.83	Native A.,	41.53	Sarah,	28.79
Isabella,	40.77	Native American,	35.04	Samuel Price,	46.34
Industry,	43.67	New Jersey,	32.81	Sarah and Mary,	36.48
Indiana,	54.85	New Jersey,	50.65	Samuel P. Chew,	31.38
Indian,	58.85	Ohio,	20.20	Swiftsure,	26.46
Isaac Jones,	36.00	President,	47.06	Statura,	40.80
John L.,	43.81	Pennsylvania,	40.47	S. Sillyman,	34.89
Jane,	34.91	Paul Jones,	35.35	Samuel L. Southard,	57.27
Jersey Lass,	26.72	Prosperity,	39.24	Superior,	39.94
John Cox,	33.04	Pennsylvania,	36.82	Three Sisters,	40.21
John E. Clyde,	34.79	Perseverance,	49.27	Two Cousins,	57.28
John Sergeant,	52.05	Patrick Henry,	30.35	Thomas Davis,	56.78
Jane and Rachael,	53.03	Planter,	26.60	Traveller,	40.28
Johnson,	66.30	Port Kennedy,	29.06	Trader,	50.63
Jonas Preston,	44.42	Relief,	46.86	Tacy & Grace,	39.06
James and Alfred,	36.57	Rhoda,	36.74	Union,	32.13
Lydia Ford,	37.91	Robinson,	31.13	Union,	60.93
Little James,	30.70	Rebecca and Hannah,	31.90	Victory,	35.00
Lady Jackson,	48.27	Robert Morris,	42.28	Vandalia,	33.57
Lydia Godfrey,	46.09	Replenish,	57.79	William and John,	23.15
Lima,	25.27	Rachael and Sally,	41.40	William Penn,	28.63
Mary Virginia,	46.50	R. M. Johnson,	48.19	Wave,	56.27
Mary and Elenor,	39.37	Rose in Bloom,	25.85	Wm. M'Fadden,	33.91
Mary Ann Gill,	33.15	Sarah Hay,	54.33	Yankee,	50.14

Steamers.

A,	36.66	Ericsson,	74.20	Proprietor,	172.74
Ashland,	182.37	Experiment,	60.00	Pennsylvania,	299.36
B,	74.51	Hudson,	170.85	Pioneer,	53.80
Bolivar,	153.47	John Jay,	131.82	Portsmouth,	215.87
Barclay,	99.31	James Cage,	115.31	Pennsylvania,	202.11
Baltimore,	105.06	John Smith,	35.80	Rockland,	144.70
Balloon,	204.53	Kingston,	218.15	Robert Wharton,	83.52
Conestoga,	79.90	Napoleon,	169.39	Robert F. Stockton,	121.08
Col. John Stevens,	155.66	New Jersey,	58.48	Superior,	194.63
Constitution,	428.19	New Jersey,	95.19	Sun,	232.33
Cumberland,	68.63	New Jersey,	530.53	Sydney,	244.46
Delaware,	206.82	Ocean,	58.48	Virginia,	350.23
Enterprise,	75.81	Phila. Ice-boat,	526.50	Wilmon Whilldin,	241.65
Express,	106.20				

EXPORTS FROM NEW ORLEANS.

Mr. Whitehead, of the custom-house at New Orleans, the gentleman who, for many years, has had charge of the export records, has furnished the Price Current, Commercial Intelligencer, etc., of that city, with the following statement of the value of exports from that port, cleared at the custom-house during each month for three years—viz.—1843, 1844, and 1845—with the total for each, and showing a grand total for the three years, of \$146,578,569. It will be seen that the total exports of 1844 exceed those of 1845 in the sum of \$6,329,101.—This results from the fact that the navigation of the interior rivers was obstructed by low waters or ice during some three months of the latter year, while in 1844, there was scarcely any interruption to the intercourse with the markets of the West. This statement, however, it may be remarked, does not embrace the entire

value of the exports from the port of New Orleans, as a large amount is shipped to the neighboring states of Florida and Alabama, without being cleared at the custom-house.

STATEMENT OF THE VALUE OF EXPORTS CLEARED AT THE CUSTOM-HOUSE, NEW ORLEANS, FOR THE THREE PAST YEARS.

	1843.	1844.	1845.
January,.....	\$5,277,144	\$6,179,120	\$3,953,108
February,.....	5,748,971	6,106,525	6,436,049
March,.....	4,503,054	7,108,786	5,592,236
April,.....	5,488,070	7,390,408	6,416,729
May,.....	4,982,490	6,733,197	4,938,062
June,.....	4,647,801	4,415,140	3,125,199
July,.....	3,466,068	3,156,216	2,073,895
August,.....	1,281,671	1,085,310	1,016,966
September,.....	967,722	1,072,879	1,279,149
October,.....	1,692,405	1,797,045	2,708,041
November,.....	3,283,964	2,790,216	5,406,278
December,.....	4,187,494	5,855,566	4,415,595
	<u>\$45,526,854</u>	<u>\$53,690,408</u>	<u>\$47,361,307</u>
Grand total for three years,.....			146,578,569.

SUGAR CROP OF LOUISIANA FOR 1845.

Mr. P. A. Champomier has published his annual statement of the sugar crop of Louisiana. It is a neat pamphlet of some thirty-seven pages, containing the name of every sugar planter in the state, the product of each plantation, and much other matter, which renders it a work of great value to all interested in the growth and consumption of this important staple of Louisiana. After enumerating the different plantations, with the product of each, Mr. C. furnishes the following interesting statement:—

Names of Parishes.	No. of Plant-ers.	No. of Sugar Houses.	No. of Steam Power.	No. of Horse Power.	No. of hhd.s. Sugar.	No. of 1000 lbs. nett.
Point Coupee,.....	51	40	34	6	1,206	1,259
West Baton Rouge,.....	78	52	39	13	4,961	5,918
East Baton Rouge,.....	54	35	16	19	4,222	4,856
Iberville,.....	194	116	74	42	15,624	17,477
Ascension,.....	96	63	42	21	16,906	19,119
St. James,.....	197	81	53	28	17,515	19,390
St. John the Baptist,.....	145	61	33	28	9,909	10,445
St. Charles,.....	94	39	34	5	10,650	11,145
Jefferson,.....	49	29	29	...	7,541	8,185
Orleans and St. Bernard,.....	47	26	22	4	5,670	6,191
Plaquemines,.....	77	45	33	12	11,321	12,578
Assumption, Bayou Lafourche,...	206	137	41	96	12,076	13,487
Lafourche Interior,.....	164	98	33	65	11,116	12,144
Terrebonne,.....	104	78	42	36	12,080	13,509
St. Mary, Attakapas,.....	283	179	80	99	24,722	29,194
St. Martin, do.	115	69	9	60	5,246	6,221
Vermillion, do.	33	19	1	18	1,176	1,326
Lafayette, do.	11	7	...	7	365	403
St. Landry, Opelousas,.....	37	26	5	21	1,352	1,558
Calcasieu, do.	11	11	1	10	119	119
Sundries and Molasses Sugar,...	3,000	3,000
Cistern Sugar,.....	9,873	9,873
Avoyelles, Red River,.....	8	7	2	5
Rapides, do.	19	18	5	13
Catahoula, do.	1	1	...	1
Concordia, do.	1	1	...	1
West Feliciana, Mississippi river,	2	2	2
Total,.....	2,077	1,240	630	610	186,650	207,337

RAILROAD STATISTICS.

PROGRESS OF RAILROADS IN GEORGIA.

The Milledgeville Journal gives the following gratifying account of the enterprise which the state of Georgia has, within the last two years, manifested in her internal improvements:—

OF THE RAILROADS ALREADY FINISHED.

Central Railroad, from Savannah to Macon,.....	192 miles.
Georgia Railroad, from Augusta to Atlanta,.....	170 "
Western and Atlantic Railroad, from Atlanta to Dawsonville,.....	80 "
Total,.....	442 "

TO BE FINISHED IN SIX, AND LESS THAN TWELVE MONTHS.

Macon and Western Railroad, from Macon to Atlanta,.....	101 miles.
Western and Atlantic Railroad, from Dawsonville to Cross Plains,.....	22 "
	123 "
Already finished, as above,.....	442 "
Total,.....	565 "

It should be stated that the Macon and Western Railroad has been in operation several years, for the distance of fifty-nine miles, and is now undergoing thorough repair, in the hands of a new and strong company.

The Macon and Western Railroad is virtually an extension of the Central Railroad. Atlanta is the common point at which the Georgia Railroad, and the Macon and Western Railroad, terminate. The Western and Atlantic Railroad is the extension of both to the westward; and when it reaches Cross Plains, the works of internal improvement in the state will be completed within fifteen miles of the southern boundary of the state of Tennessee.

LITTLE MIAMI RAILROAD, OHIO.

The third annual report of this road has been published. It shows the cost and condition of the road up to December, 1845. The length of the road now in use, from Cincinnati to Xenia, is 65½ miles—the distance to be completed from Xenia to Springfield, where it will connect with the Mad River and Lake Erie Road, is 18½ miles—or its entire length will be 84 miles—and its distance to the Lake of Sandusky, 214 miles. The total amount received for passengers, from December 1, 1844, to November 31, 1845, was \$25,394 82; and for freight, during the same time, \$20,932 76. Total, for freight and passengers, \$46,327 58. The expenditures amounted to \$30,840 89; leaving a profit, over current expenses, of \$15,486 69. The total expense of construction, &c., thus far, has been \$937,367.

The following is a statement of the principal articles of produce transported on the Little Miami Road, for the year ending December 1st:—

Apples, clover-seed, & eggs, bbls.	553	Butter,	lbs.	26,705
Beef, pork, and lard,.....	1,971	Castings,.....		181,985
Molasses, oil, vinegar and cider,.....	658	Hay,.....		118,612
Whiskey,.....	19,582	Lumber, M. feet, B. M.,.....		289,763
Wheat, and buckwheat flour,.....	25,147	Hoop-poles and staves,.....	M.	276,919
Lime,.....	1,054	Shingles,.....		740,550
Salt,.....	3,031	Malt,.....	sacks	2,822
Empty barrels and kegs,.....	2,367	Barley and oats,	bush.	5,093
Merchandise, sundries, etc., .lbs.	1,788,427	Corn, wheat, and rye,.....		103,811
Iron and nails,.....	166,673	Potatoes and turnips,.....		2,774
Pork, and bulk meat,.....	624,557	Coal,.....		41,028
Paper and rags,.....	241,553	Live hogs,.....		4,096

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

PENANG HARBOR.

SINGAPORE, Dec. 3, 1845.—Vessels approaching the island from the southward, intending to enter the harbor of Penang, should be guided by the following directions :

1. There are two lines of beacons ; those on the east side, five in number, painted white, in the form of a cross ; and those on the west side, three in number, painted red, in the form of a triangle.

2. The first or southernmost white cross beacon is visible from three to four miles, bearing E. $\frac{1}{4}$ N. from the S. end of Saddle Island, and SSE. from the middle of Pulo Rymo, distance one mile.

3. Vessels will be safe in working if they do not stand to the eastward of the white cross beacons.

4. The southern red triangle beacon is off the north end of Pulo Jerajah, and after having passed it care must be taken to keep more to the east side of the channel to avoid a small patch, with 24 fathoms low water, bearing nearly NNE. about quarter of a mile.

5. With this exception, between the first and second red triangle beacons, all vessels can safely work in, if they never go to the eastward of the white cross beacons, or to the westward of the red triangle beacons ; each beacon is placed on projecting spits of sand or mud, in two fathoms low water, spring tides.

SHOAL IN LINE WITH PULO JANANG.

We copy the subjoined from the Singapore Free Press : “ The following extract of a letter, from Mr. Alexander Rodger, of the barque *Ellen*, from China for London, dated, off Anjer, Nov. 17, 1845, contains information of the existence of a shoal in a part of the sea which on the charts appears to be free from anything of the kind. The Dutch charts lately published, may, perhaps, notice it :

“ On the morning of the 6th inst. (6h. 30m. A.M.) we were so unfortunate as to discover a shoal by touching it. She only struck once, and went over the rock without stopping, but that one blow took away the after part of the false keel, and nearly unshipped the rudder. It was a fine morning, wind light at SSW., and sea smooth, and watch washing decks, and in a place where no shoal is laid down in the latest published charts by Horsburgh. It lies in lat. 0. 40. N., lon. 107. 34. E., the peak of the highest Tamblian, N. 1 E., distant 20 miles, and in a line with Pulo Janang, distant 10 miles. Very soon after, I went in the boat, with three men, and examined the shoal, and found it to be about 100 yards square, and all sharp-pointed rocks, from five fathoms to nine feet, which was the least water ; but great part of it had only fifteen to eighteen feet, and in some places twelve feet, and in one place nine feet over it. Had the *Ellen* got on the middle of the shoal, she would have laid there, and you might have had a visit of us in our boats. There were nineteen to twenty-one fathoms close to and all around it.”

LIGHTS AT THE ENTRANCE OF THE ROADS OF MORLAIX.

From the 1st of December, 1846, the direction of the eastern channel of the roads of Morlaix, (called the channel of Treguier,) will be indicated after dark by two lights, which will be lighted, the first on *Ile Noire*, and the second on the *Tour de la Lande*.

The following statement makes known the geographical position, character, and bearing of the new lights :

1. *Light of Ile Noire*.—A light varied every two minutes by flashes, preceded and followed by short eclipses. Lat. 48. 40. 23., lon. 6. 12. 48. Elevation, 14 metres above the highest tides, and may be seen at a distance of 10 marine miles.

2. *Light of the Tour de la Lande*.—Fixed Light. Lat. 43. 38. 14., lon. 6. 13. 23. Elevation of the light above the surface, 17 metres ; above the sea, 87 metres ; to be seen at a distance of 12 miles.

N. B.—Besides these two lights, which, brought into one, indicate the position of the eastern channel of the roads of Morlaix, a small fixed light, to be seen at the distance of one marine mile, will be exhibited at the southern side of the *Castle du Taureau*, (750 metres to the N. 60 W. of the *Ile Noire*,) to light the anchorage of the northern part of roads.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

REGULATIONS OF THE TOBACCO TRADE IN NEW ORLEANS.

The following arrangement has been agreed upon between the parties interested in the tobacco trade of New Orleans:—

The committee, appointed by the tobacco factors, assembled at the counting-house of Messrs. Fellowes, Johnson & Co., on the evening of the 3d of March, 1846, to report some plan by which the present system of inspecting, weighing, coopering, &c., of tobacco can be so guarded as to remedy the evils complained of by the purchasers of tobacco in this market, have had the subject under serious consideration, and beg leave respectfully to report:

That your committee are fully persuaded that great evils do exist under the present loose system of conducting the trade in New Orleans; that the door is open to the perpetration of great frauds, both upon the buyer and seller of tobacco; that the complaints made by the buyers have too much foundation in truth; that justice to the buyers, to our own character as merchants, to the character of the New Orleans market, as well as the interests of our country correspondents, calls loudly upon us to do all in our power to prevent the frauds complained of.

With this view, in the absence of the requisite legal enactments, your committee cannot recommend any means promising greater efficacy than the regulations herein proposed—

1st. It shall be required of the inspectors to draw the samples themselves, or cause it to be done by a person under their control, who shall not be in any way connected with the warehouses; and that the tobacco shall be broken in four places, and an equal proportion from each break shall be used in making up the sample.

2d. It shall be required of them, in making up the sample, that the tape or twine used, shall pass through the hands of the tobacco, and a seal of wax shall be put upon each sample, with the initials of the inspectors; and that all marks upon the sample card shall be with ink.

3d. A weigher shall be appointed for each tobacco warehouse in the city, who shall be a sworn officer, and shall give bond and security, in the sum of five thousand dollars, for the faithful performance of his duties.

4th. He shall be present at every inspection in the warehouse where he may be located; he shall weigh each cask after it is taken off the tobacco, and mark the weight thereon; he shall return the cask to the tobacco from which it came, and after it has been coopered, he shall weigh the hhd. of tobacco and mark the weight on the same.

5th. He shall see that every hhd. is coopered in a proper manner, either under a screw or a lever, and that all the loose tobacco be put back into the hhd. from which it came; and that every hhd. is put under a sufficient pressure to close the breaks caused by inspecting, sufficiently to prevent injury from mould or dampness.

6th. He shall certify to the gross and tare weights upon the certificates issued by the warehouses, and shall countersign the same. He shall superintend the delivery of all tobacco from the warehouses when called by the holders of the certificates, and shall be responsible for all errors of delivery. He shall see that all tobacco shall be coopered up the same day that it is opened, and that before sundown.

7th. The weigher shall furnish his own laborers to weigh the casks, place them back on the tobacco, and weigh the hogshead of tobacco.

8th. Either buyer or seller shall have the privilege of requiring the weigher to re-weigh any tobacco when called on previous to or at the time of delivery; and if the certified weights (making due allowance for shrinkage) shall be found correct, he shall be paid his usual fee by the party requiring the service—if otherwise, he shall not be paid, but held responsible for the error. But it is distinctly understood that his responsibility ceases when the tobacco leaves the warehouse.

9th. The compensation of the weigher shall be twenty-five cents per hogshead, which shall be deducted from the charges now allowed to the warehouses; and he shall have the privilege of the assistance of deputies, but shall be held responsible for their acts.

10th. The weigher shall remain in office twelve months, unless for misdemeanor the Board of the Tobacco Trade shall see proper to remove him.

11th. A Board shall be appointed, to be denominated "The Board of the Tobacco Trade," consisting of six members—three to be chosen by the buyers and three by the factors—which board shall have the power of appointing all tobacco weighers, and to

which all difficulties arising in the trade shall be referred. Four members shall constitute a quorum to transact business.

12th. Warehouse-keepers shall without delay break out and deliver all tobacco when called on by the holders of the certificates.

13th. No one shall have the privilege of choosing inspectors, but it shall be left optional with themselves to allot the duty to any two of their number.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION OF MONTREAL.

WE have received from the President and Directors of this Institution, a copy of their fifth annual report; a plain, business-like document. We are pleased to learn that the directors have good ground to look forward with confidence, not merely to its continuance, but to a constantly advancing measure of prosperity and usefulness. It appears that ninety-seven volumes have been added to the library, by donation, during the past year, and that the library now comprises 3,934 volumes. The reading-room is supplied with two reviews, fourteen monthly magazines, and forty-four newspapers. Of the fourteen monthlies but two are from the United States—the Merchants' Magazine, and the Journal of the American Temperance Union. A course of lectures was delivered during the past season. At the fourth annual meeting a prize was offered for the best essay on the "Advantages to a Commercial Man of a Literary Education." There were, however, but few competitors for the prize, which was unanimously awarded to Mr. J. H. Winn, the Corresponding Secretary of the Association. The subject adopted for the prize essay is, "Commerce; its objects and history." The plan pursued by this association, of offering prizes for the best essay on some commercial subject, is a good one, and we hope to see it adopted by similar institutions in the United States. The list of members, presents, in comparison with former reports, very gratifying evidence of a progressive increase. The present number is 469; last year it was 392, and the previous year 319. The Board of Directors conclude their report by urging the members to avail themselves of the means of improvement offered through the association; so that they may thus gather the information, and lay the foundation of "that intelligence, uprightness and honor, which characterise British merchants."

ABOLITION OF IMPRISONMENT FOR DEBT IN NEW SOUTH WALES.

The friends of humanity, and a liberal and enlightened policy everywhere, will be gratified in reading the following statement, which we copy from the "Colonial Times:"

"The British and colonial press has been united in awarding to the Legislative Council of New South Wales the merit of being the first legislature in the British dominions which had the fortitude to wipe away from the statute-book that most monstrous legacy of the barbarous ages—imprisonment for debt. In these commendations we most heartily join; indeed, we consider the fact of his having been the member at whose more immediate instance this admirable step was taken, the brightest feather in Mr. Lowe's cap; but, however heartily we approve of this measure, we cannot allow it to be assumed that the Legislative Council of New South Wales was the first to lead in the matter, for it is a highly interesting fact, that, so long ago as the year 1699, the same step was taken, and on precisely the same principles, by the then parliament of New Caledonia, better known probably to our readers as the ill-fated Scotch colony on the Isthmus of Darien. The following, being No. 27, of the rules of ordinances for the good government of the colony, promulgated by the colonial parliament, was the law which abolished imprisonment for debt: 'All lands, goods, debts, and other effects, except the working tools of a mechanic, the books of a student, or man of reading, and the wearing clothes of any person, shall in the most ready manner be subject to the just and equal satisfaction of debts; but the person of a free man shall not, in any sort, be liable to arrests, imprisonment, or other restraints whatsoever, for or by reason of debt, unless there shall be fraud first proved upon him.'"

NOTE TO "THE CENSUS OF THE UNITED STATES OF 1850,"

PUBLISHED IN THIS MAGAZINE, IN FEBRUARY, 1846.

We cheerfully give place to the annexed communication from Thomas Gregg, Esq., of Warsaw, Illinois. It will be seen that the article which Mr. G. refers to, was from the pen of William Kirkland, Esq., and that his name is given in the table of contents as the author. It has been our endeavor from the start, to avoid party politics, but, at the same time, to let our correspondents express their views, if done courteously and in good taste, with perfect freedom. The following extract from our prospectus, clearly defines the course we aim to pursue in the management of this Magazine:—

"It has been, and will continue to be, the aim of the Editor and Proprietor of the *MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE*, to avoid everything of a party, political, or sectional bias or bearing, in the conduct of the work—opening its pages to the free and fair discussion of antagonistic doctrines connected with the great interests of Commerce, Agriculture, Manufactures, and the Currency."

WARSAW, Illinois, March 20, 1846.

To the Editor of the *Merchants' Magazine*:

SIR—In the February number of your valuable periodical, in the article on the Census of 1850, page 116-17, the following paragraph occurs:

"That the spirit of unadulterated democracy—understanding by this term something far other than the enlightened freedom which is contemplated by the constitution—is exceedingly prevalent in that wide region called the West, is but too clearly proved by the Mormon contests. This spirit, fully received, demands that the will of the people, to-day, should be the law for to-day, in spite of any musty, antiquated records, called laws, and the like, which are merely the opinions of people who lived years ago, and, like the precepts of our religion, well enough for these times, but not at all adapted to ours. Hence, the undisguised murder of Smith, with the absolute impunity of the murderers, notwithstanding the governor's pledge of honor for his safety, and his strenuous efforts to bring the perpetrators to justice. The people of Illinois have gone on to burn out a population of fifteen or twenty thousand people, consuming house after house, with systematic deliberation, in order to rid themselves of a portion of the people whom they do not like; and there is no power in the state to stop them. The constitution, the laws, and the magistrates, are as if they were not. The sovereign will of the people—that is, their will for to-day—is not to be resisted. Such is the actual construction of the doctrine of majorities in the second state of the West."

Now, it is not my intention or desire to enter into any controversy with the author of the above paragraph; neither is your journal the proper medium for such a controversy. But I think that such a paragraph requires notice and correction. In a periodical such as yours, which will find its way into hundreds of public and private libraries, and descend to posterity, a chronicle of the present time, it is highly necessary that its statements should approximate, as nearly as may be, to the truth. Without supposing that the writer committed an intentional error, I shall now proceed to show that, in point of fact, the above paragraph is extremely deficient.

That the "construction of the doctrine of majorities," is different in this state from what it is in the state of New York, or any other state of the Union, either in theory or practice, I have not been able to perceive, after a residence here of near ten years. That the citizens of this state are as law-abiding, and possess as much "enlightened freedom," as those of some of the older states, I am not prepared to say; but I will say, that if proof to the contrary is to be found in the frequent instances of mob violence, or, as our author has it, "the manifestations of the will of the people," New York, at least, has little cause to rebuke us. Neither can the Mormon difficulties furnish any proof of the correctness of his position: for, it is my candid conviction—and this opinion, I *know*, is acquiesced in by hundreds of as good citizens as this or any other state can boast—that Mormon aggression could not have been carried to a similar extent in any state of this Union, and have been more peaceably, more patiently, endured by her citizens. Human nature is about the same in all the states. There have been too many instances in which the supremacy of the law and of the constitution has been trampled under foot, in all the states; and it is one of the most alarming evils of the times. But I am not willing that the people of this state, and of this section of the state, should be thus made scape-goats for the sins of the whole people. Were the facts as the writer states them, they would no more establish the truth of his position, than that the flour riots in your city, the destruction of the Ursuline Convent at Boston, or the anti-rent troubles in the interior of New York, prove that the "spirit of unadulterated democracy is very prevalent in that wide region called" New York and New England.

But Mr. Kirkland has been misinformed of the events which have taken place in "the second state of the West." Instead of the people of Illinois "burning out fifteen or twenty thousand people, consuming house after house with systematic deliberation," the Mormons themselves only claim to have lost seventy-five to a hundred houses, and these are known to include out-houses and stables. The real loss is probably forty houses, es-

timated at, say \$5,000; while nineteen-twentieths of those who were thus burnt out, remained in the country. The "fifteen or twenty thousand people," so inhumanly burnt out of house and home, would include all of the Mormons in this section of the state; and they were all, until very lately, peaceably enjoying themselves, in their peculiar way, in the city of Nauvoo and its environs. This Spring, however, a small portion of them have commenced their long-talked of exode to the regions beyond the Rocky Mountains.

The "absolute impunity" of the murderers of Smith, is not quite so fabulous as the "fifteen or twenty thousand" sufferers by arson, for they are yet at large. Some eight or ten individuals were, however, indicted for the murder, and tried by an impartial jury, and acquitted for want of sufficient evidence.

In their difficulties with the Mormons, I do not pretend that the people of Illinois have done no wrong. That they have done much wrong, I am sorry to be compelled to admit. They do not claim—nor do I for them—exemption from human frailty. But, as their acts are to meet with the approval or the condemnation of the world, they desire that those acts shall be correctly and impartially stated. That desire is both natural and just.

Mr. Editor, I have thought thus much necessary, if not in justification, at least, in vindication and explanation of what the people of Illinois have done. I have purposely avoided adverting to the causes of their conduct. Those causes, and their consequences, will, probably, be fully and impartially laid before the public, at no distant day.

Very respectfully, yours, &c.

THOMAS GREGG.

FREEMAN HUNT, ESQ.

FAIRBANKS' PLATFORM SCALES.

It is not often that we are induced to laud an article of trade, and we never do, unless perfectly satisfied that we are commending something that is useful. We cannot consent to gratify the cupidity of an individual, at the risk of imposing upon the confidence of thousands of our readers who rely upon the honesty of our statements, if not in the infallibility of our judgment. That great improvements have been made, within a few years, in the instruments for weighing merchandise, is a fact familiar to business men. The antique, clumsy, and inaccurate methods of weighing, have given way to the inventions of American mechanical skill, and the utmost precision has been attained. A variety of Platform Balances are manufactured and used, which cannot be relied on for any considerable degree of accuracy; so that they necessarily involve one party in pecuniary loss. It therefore affords us pleasure to refer to the Platform Scales of Mr. Fairbanks, which have been extensively used in all parts of the United States for several years, and given, as far as our knowledge extends, very general satisfaction. We purchased one of these scales three years since, and have used them constantly for weighing paper, &c.; and, for accuracy and durability, we are quite sure they have not, and perhaps cannot, be surpassed. The plan of construction is philosophical and simple. The employment of two levers, with a single beam, is certainly the most practicable, in a compound platform balance. Any increase of the number of levers, or an additional beam, renders the instrument more complicated, less precise in its operation, and more liable to derangement. These scales are used by many of the leading merchants in New York, whose written testimony, as to their superior excellence, has been freely accorded to the manufacturers.

MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION OF BOSTON.

At a meeting of the Mercantile Library Association, held on Wednesday evening, April 16th, 1846, at Amory Hall, the following gentlemen were elected officers for the following year: President, Thomas J. Allen; Vice-President, Levi L. Wilcutt; Recording Secretary, Thomas H. Lord; Treasurer, Gustavus L. Bradford; Directors, Charles H. Allen, George H. Briggs, James Otis, Joshua P. Bird, Henry F. Chamberlain, John Stetson, William Kemard, W. Stowell Tilton.

FREE TRADE ASSOCIATION OF CANADA.

An association under this name has been organized in Montreal, whose object will be to "consolidate views and interest, attain unity of purpose and action, and thereby place ourselves in a position to secure the ascendancy of our principles in the commercial laws of the province. The commerce and industry of this colony, as yet in their infancy, and hitherto nourished under an unsound system of protective stimulants, will soon be left to seek out their natural channels; and fortunate will it be for our common welfare, if, by our united efforts, we now succeed in planting the principle of free trade in our commercial system. Then may we hope to make the St. Lawrence the highway for the rich products of the teeming west—to develop the vast resources of this rising colony—and to secure for her people the highest possible share of prosperity and happiness."

Having said thus much by way of explanation, the manner of accomplishing this object will be to show the amount of produce collected annually on the shores of our great inland waters, and brought to Montreal for distribution to the various markets of consumption; next, the vast quantity that passes through the Erie canal, seeking a market at New York, and other American ports; and lastly, to show that it is in the power of Canada to divert a large share of this latter trade through her own waters.

The amount of some leading articles of produce, brought by the St. Lawrence to the city of Montreal, in the year 1845, is given as follows:

Pork,.....bbls.	6,109	Wheat,.....bu.	450,209
Beef,.....	723	Other grain,.....	40,781
Lard,.....kgs.	461	Ashes,.....cks.	33,000
Flour,.....bbls.	590,305	Butter,.....	8,112

ANDERSON'S TOBACCO MANUFACTORY.

In a "Complete Treatise on Tobacco," by W. F. J. Thiers, M. D., embracing the report of the Secretary of the Treasury, made under a call of the House of Representatives, and a collection of facts and figures on the subject, we find an interesting letter from Mr. John Anderson, who has acquired so much celebrity for his fine cut tobacco among the "devotees of the noxious weed." Dr. Thiers, who, previous to the publication of his treatise, visited the establishment of Mr. Anderson, says, that he has effected many valuable improvements in the machinery employed in his business. The advantage of knives, propelled by steam, for the cutting of tobacco, is obvious—the revolutions being performed with perfect regularity and precision, a long silken cord is produced, which the old, laborious, but unscientific method, could not effect. The manufactory is divided into fourteen apartments, each apartment being devoted to a distinct branch of the business. I was not a little surprised on learning the amount of labor required in depriving tobacco of its impurities, preparatory to cutting and curing. Mr. A. assured me that one great reason why so much inferior tobacco is offered for sale, is owing to inattention, or want of knowledge in the preparation. Large quantities of tobacco are allowed to *ferment*, and the caloric deprives it of its odorous principle; this loss drives the unskilful to the employment of drugs, with the vain hope of restoring the aroma. We have rather condensed than quoted, as the whole passage is too long for our pages. We would add, that the distinguished chemist, Dr. Chilton, analyzed a quantity of Mr. A.'s "Fine Cut Honey Dew," and certified that he found it *pure* tobacco. When we remember what immense quantities of this kind of chewing tobacco are annually consumed, the importance of a scientific system of preparation will be at once acknowledged.

EXTENSION OF RAILWAYS IN ENGLAND.

The extension of railways during the last three years, from 1,500 to 2,000 miles, has had the effect of increasing the average receipts per mile from about £2,800 to £3,200, and the total returns from about £2,600,000 to just £4,000,000.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*Biographies of Good Wives*. By L. MARIA CHILD, Author of the "Mother's Book," "Letters from New York," "Flowers for Children," etc. New York: C. S. Francis & Co.

The publishers of the "Cabinet Library of Choice Prose and Poetry," have been singularly successful in the selection of works for their series. Embracing, as it does, works of the highest order of merit, and a pure and elevated moral tone, it cannot fail of securing the favor of all who desire to grow in the graces and virtues that are the chief ornaments of our nature. Of the "Good Wives" of Mrs. Child, we have no fear of saying too much. It is a good book, in the most emphatic meaning of the term; and her biographies, brief and beautiful, are marked for their faithfulness, clearness and simplicity. "If this book," says Mrs. Child, in her preface, which is modest, unassuming, and to the point, "convince one doubting individual that there really is such a thing as constant, disinterested love, which misfortune cannot intimidate, or time diminish—if it teach one mistaken votary of ambition that marriage, formed from conscientious motives, makes human life like a serene sky—if it reveal to one thoughtless wife some portion of the celestial beauty there is in a perfect union of duty and inclination—if it prevent one young heart from becoming selfish and worldly—then it has not been written in vain." We feel quite sure that no sensible, well-meaning wife or mother, can rise from its perusal without the strong impulse of goodness, an impulse that will ripen into a noble activity.

2.—*Typee: A Peep at Polynesian Life during a Four Months' Residence in the Valley of the Marquesas, with Notices of the French Occupation of Tahiti, and the Provisional Cession of the Sandwich Islands to Lord Paulet*. By HERMAN MELVILLE. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

This has all the elements of a popular book—novelty, and originality of style and matter, and deep interest from first to last. The writer purports to have been a sailor in a ship cruising for whales in the South Seas, from which he escaped while among the Marquesas Islands, and for some time enjoyed the delights of the tropics in a valley whose beauty he describes in most glowing colors. The perfect *sang froid* exhibited in his intercourse with the cannibals, and ease with which he seemed to regard the delights, hopes, and fears of his Polynesian life, give a particular richness to the book. The faithfulness of the descriptions and narrative give it a peculiar charm, and few can read, without a thrill, the glowing pictures of scenery and luxuriant nature, the festivities and amusements, the heathenish rites and sacrifices, and battles, of these beautiful islands.

3.—*Scenes and Thoughts in Europe*. By an AMERICAN. No. XVI., Wiley & Putnam's Library of American Books.

In this book will be found a happy balance between the scenes and thoughts. The scenes are painted with liveliness, and every mark of a fine discrimination; the thoughts are profound, noble, and clearly expressed. The author shows, likewise, the rare combination of sufficient culture in what is peculiar to Europe, to select leading points, without losing sight of minute traits of individuality, with an understanding of the genius of his own land, superior in the opportunity of development and the prophecy of progress. He is European, not in a paltry and ignorant mimicry, or a profound pleasure in the externals, of European life; but in an intelligence of the great and beautiful results of her long ages of travail and wo, results which, if inadequate to satisfy in full the wants and desires of man, he can never afford to forget, but must always know better how to prize as he advances. He is American, not in a rude uncultured lawlessness which he mistakes for freedom; not in a vain, superficial, and bustling habit of mind, but in a superiority to ancient prejudice, and in a larger sense of the substantial interests of man. The book is worthy careful perusal and consideration.

4.—*Views and Reviews in American Literature, History, and Fiction*. By W. GILMORE SIMMS. New York: Wiley & Putnam's Library of American Books.

This volume embraces a collection of the author's contributions to the literary periodicals of the country, north and south, written during the last fifteen years. They refer to natural objects and characteristics, and constitute a class, in themselves, illustrative of our history, our materials of art, the moral of our aims, and the true development of our genius. They show what may be done among us, and insist upon what we should do, in regard to the essential in our progress. The subjects discussed in the present series, are, Americanism in Literature, The Epochs and Events in American History, Literature and Life among American Aborigines, Daniel Boone, the first hunter of Kentucky, Cortez and the Conquest of Mexico, and the Writings of J. Fenimore Cooper.

5.—*European Agriculture and Rural Economy: From Personal Observation*. By HENRY COLMAN. Part I. Vol. 5. Boston: A. D. Phelps.

The present part closes the first volume of this invaluable work. Five more parts, which will be included in the second volume, will complete the labors of Mr. Colman. Thus far, the author's observations relate chiefly to England, Scotland, and Ireland, but in future numbers, they will be extended to the French, Flemish, Swiss, German, and Italian husbandry. We intend, at our earliest convenience, to give an elaborate review of this excellent work.

- 6.—*History of the Great Reformation of the Sixteenth Century, in Germany and Switzerland, &c.* By J. H. MERLE D'AUBIGNE. Vol. IV. New York: Robert Carter.

The popularity of this work has been truly remarkable, especially in England and the United States. In the two countries named, more than two hundred thousand copies are in circulation, while in France the number hardly exceeds four hundred. The worthy author has reaped very little pecuniary advantage from the work, except the voluntary and liberal presents of Mr. Carter, who had made an arrangement to pay over to the author one-half of the profits of all of the fourth edition sold in the United States, or ordered and paid for previous to the publication of any rival edition. This would have been a very handsome sum; but a rival publisher of religious books in Philadelphia steps in and turns out an edition in a few days after the appearance of Mr. Carter's, and thus deprives the author of the benefits of the contract, and the publishers of almost all profit. Mr. Carter, however, who appears to be actuated by motives not altogether selfish, will, we have no doubt, act liberally towards the author; and, on this account, we earnestly hope his edition will be more generally purchased. He has published the whole history in every variety of size, style, and price, as will be seen by the following table: Uniform with the subscribers' cheap edition in half cloth, 37½ cents; do. edition in full cloth, 50 cents; do. best edition, thick paper, in extra cloth, 75 cents; the four volumes in half cloth, \$1.25; do. in full, \$1.75; on fine thick paper, extra cloth, new type, \$2.50; in one 8vo. volume, full cloth, same type without spacing, \$1.00; the fourth volume 8vo., separate, paper cover, do. 25 cents. The fourth volume contains the most important epochs of the Reformation on the Continent; such as the Two Diets of Spire, 1526 and 1529, the latter celebrated for the great Protest of the Reformed States; the conference at Marburg between the Swiss and German Reformers; the Augsburg Confession; the progress of the Gospel in Switzerland, terminating with the catastrophe at Cappel, in which Zwingli was slain, and the death of Ecolampadius.

- 7.—*Sacred Philosophy of the Seasons; illustrating the Perfections of God in the Phenomena of the Year.* By the Rev. HENRY DUNCAN, D.D., Rothwell Spring. New York: Robert Carter.

This is the first of a series of four volumes devoted to the seasons of the year. There is a chapter for every day in the season of Spring, relating to a distinct subject, the object of which is to demonstrate the existence and the attributes of God, in the various phenomena of the revolving year. Each volume contains an argument complete in itself, and peculiar to the season of which it treats. The present exhibits proofs of the Divine agency in the reproductive powers and principles of creative things, with reference to the quality of the atmosphere, the diffusion of light and heat, the deposition and distribution of moisture, the properties of the soil, the nature of the living principle, the development of seeds and plants, the animal structure and instincts, &c. A similar arrangement is adopted in the other volumes devoted to the other seasons of the year. The variety of knowledge which it embraces, is well calculated to awaken and gratify the curiosity of the young, while it is also interesting to maturer years. Although it is not without its defects, it is, on the whole, a work which instructs by its multitude of facts, and which incites to reflection and further study, by its still greater multitude of suggestions.

- 8.—*The Christian Ministry; with an Inquiry into the Causes of its Inefficiency.* By the Rev. CHARLES BRIDGES, A.M., Rector of Old Newton, Suffolk, and author of "An Exposition of Psalm CXIX." From the Sixth London Edition. New York: Robert Carter.

This is a large octavo volume, of nearly five hundred pages; and is particularly intended for the use of the clerical profession. The author is an earnest and devoted member of what would be termed the Evangelical branch of the Church of England, and though he has had special regard to the Establishment, yet "he would be sorry to refuse a cordial admission, and to neglect a diligent improvement of the acknowledged excellencies of the honored men of God in other communions." The work is written in a strong and vigorous style.

- 9.—*Solace for Bereaved Parents: or Infants Die to Live: with an Historical Account of Infant Salvation; also, very full Selections from various Authors, in Prose and Poetry.* By the Rev. THOMAS SMITH, D. D. New York: Robert Carter.

We have here a volume of three hundred pages, devoted exclusively to the subject of infant salvation, and the comfort of bereaved parents. The author maintains that the doctrine of infant damnation is not peculiar to the Calvinists; but, on the contrary, that they were foremost in repudiating it. But by far the larger portion of the volume is made up of poems and prose extracts from eminent authors of all sects and no sects. These are appropriate, and selected with correct taste, and good judgment.

- 10.—*The Fruit Culturist: adapted to the Climate of the United States; containing Directions for Pruning Young Trees in the Nursery, and for the Management of the Orchard and Fruit Garden.* By JOHN J. THOMAS. New York: Mark H. Newman.

The object of this work is not only to furnish useful directions to those who may be little acquainted with the management of fruit-trees, but to promote the culture of the best varieties, and to improve their treatment so as to secure excellence and productiveness in a more eminent degree than is usually attained. So far as we are capable of judging, we should think it well calculated to answer these objects.

- 11.—*A First Latin Book*. By THOMAS KRECHBERG ARNOLD, M.A., Rector of Lyndon, and late Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. Carefully revised and corrected, by Rev. J. A. SPENCER, A.M. From the Fifth London Edition. New York: D. Appleton. Philadelphia: G. S. Appleton.

The public have been much benefited by the republication of Dr. Arnold's productions, and school literature will receive a great addition in the works of which this is the primary volume. The particular distinction which marks this method of instruction, is, that it constantly forces the scholar to review as he advances, while the system has heretofore been presented to the scholar in regular order, and often before fully digested. It is impossible, in studying the language in the method which Dr. Arnold here gives, and which was borrowed from the celebrated Ollendorf, for the scholar to advance without knowing well the previous knowledge presented. We would suggest that teachers compare the advantages thus offered, with those that have sustained the time-honored system, and conclude if they will not dispense with the errors of the latter. We hope the portion of the series that follow this volume, will also be presented, as they doubtless will, by the same publishers.

- 12.—*Notes of a Traveller, on the Social and Political State of France, Prussia, Switzerland, Italy, and other parts of Europe, during the Present Century*. By SAMUEL LAING, Esq., author of "A Journal of a Residence in Norway," and of "A Tour in Sweden." Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

This work was first published in Edinburgh, in January, 1842; and in August of the same year, a second edition was called for. It is from this last edition that the present is reprinted. The author has collected a mass of materials in the social economy of the countries named in the title-page, and embodied them in a form at once attractive and philosophical. No works of the class have been more referred to and quoted than the present volume, and the two former on Sweden and Norway. Taking historical events, statistical facts, and his own observation in various tours as the basis, Mr. Laing proceeds straight forward in his conclusions in political or social economy, regardless of the theories, authorities, or opinions that may be jotted out of the road, or of the establishments, classes, or personages, whose assumed merits or false lustre may be rubbed off in the collision, and shocked with truth and just principle. There is a chapter on the German Customs Union, or the Commercial League, as to its political bearings and probable effects, that will be read with interest by our intelligent merchants and statesmen.

- 13.—*Specimens of the British Critics*. By CHRISTOPHER NORTH—(John Wilson.) Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

The design of this volume is to republish some of the best collections that appeared during the last year in Blackwood's Magazine. The subjects of the criticism were Dryden and Pope, a survey of their genius and character, as displayed in their works generally, and in particular, upon their celebrated productions—Mac Fleecoe and the Dunciad. Old Christopher North, in his discriminating way, points out the aims and beauties of these matchless satires, and, at the same time, delineates the spirit which marked this peculiar period of English literature. Perhaps, to scholars, the most interesting portion is that which describes the relation of these poets to Juvenal, Homer, and Virgil. Better criticism has not been, and hardly can be written.

- 14.—*The Outline Series of History*. Philadelphia: Thomas, Cowperthwaite & Co.

This is a series of small works, in which it is intended to embrace treatises on all those subjects which are particularly adapted for school instruction. Of these, six are finished, namely, Outlines of the History of Greece, of Rome, of England, of America, Outlines of Natural Philosophy, and Outlines of Astronomy. It would be difficult to prepare a set of books better adapted to meet the wants of schools, than these. The subjects are among the most important which can be presented to the learner, and the works are comprehensive, without lengthened detail. The treatises on History are among the best compends that are extant on that branch of study; and those on Natural Philosophy and Astronomy, make those subjects so clear that a child that can read, can understand them. These last named works were prepared by C. List, Esq., a gentleman of large experience in educational affairs, of Philadelphia. The mechanical execution is excellent, and their price is such that they may be universally adopted. We recommend them particularly to those interested in the public schools.

- 15.—*Cleveland's First Latin Book*. *Cleveland's Latin Grammar*. *Cleveland's Second Latin Book*. Philadelphia: Thomas, Cowperthwaite & Co.

These works were prepared by Charles D. Cleveland, formerly professor of the Latin and Greek languages in Dickinson College, Carlisle, Pa.; and of the Latin language and literature in the University of the City of New York. They are well calculated for leading the learner forward step by step, in acquiring a knowledge of that language which enters so largely into all our scientific works, and the formation of the language which we speak. The first is founded on the author's original "First Lessons in Latin," which was the first of those "First Lessons" which have now become so numerous. The grammar is founded on Adams' Latin Grammar, and the Second Latin Book on Jacobs' and Doring's Latin Reader. These originals, of course, need no comment. They are known to every teacher as belonging to the first class of Latin school-books; and the notes, and the excellent arrangement made by the present editor, will be found by the student to give them great additional value. We may add to this, that the mechanical execution of the books is of a superior order.

- 16.—*Narratives of Remarkable Criminal Trials*. Translated from the German of ANSELM RITTER VON FEURBACH, by Lady DUFF GORDON. New York: Harper & Brothers.

These trials are selected from a work of thirteen hundred closely printed pages, and embrace such as appeared to the English editor to possess the greatest general interest, and in obedience to the suggestions of the Edinburgh Review. Although abridged to little more than half their original length, Lady Gordon seems to have preserved the main outline of every trial, which is filled up with just so much of detail as will serve to give a tolerably faithful picture of crimes common to all nations, treated in a manner widely different from our own. Anselm Feurbach, celebrated as a judge, a legislator, and a writer, was, for many years, president of the highest criminal court in Bavaria, and the penal code of that country was chiefly formed by him. The present work has excited great attention in Germany. Several of the trials forcibly illustrate the danger of relying upon circumstantial evidence in criminal prosecutions.

- 17.—*Journal of Researches into the Natural History and Geology of the Countries Visited during a Voyage of H. M. S. Beagle round the World, under the command of Captain Fitz Roy, R. N.* By CHARLES DARWIN, M. A., F. R. S. In two volumes. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This work forms the tenth and eleventh numbers of "Harper's New Miscellany," a rare collection of useful standard publications. They embrace a history of the voyage of the *Beagle*, undertaken for scientific purposes, and performed at the expense, and under the direction, of the British government. In his preface to the English edition, Mr. Darwin, the author, states that he accompanied the vessel at the request of her commander, and with the special sanction of the Lords of the Admiralty. We have, in this work, besides a narrative of the voyage, a sketch of Mr. Darwin's observations in natural history and geology, presented in such a manner, as to possess much interest and value to the general reader. It is well adapted to the purpose of popular instruction and entertainment, and we consider its introduction into the series at once appropriate and judicious.

- 18.—*The Old Continental; or, The Price of Liberty*. By the author of "The Dutchman's Fireside," etc., etc. In two volumes. New York: Paine & Burgess.

This tale, we are informed, in a note appended, was substantially written several years ago; and the author, after keeping it, as he says, more than the period prescribed by Horace, has given it a last revision, and sent it out for the amusement of his countrymen. The personages, and a portion of the story, are historical or traditional. The design of the author was, to convey to the mind of the reader some idea of the spirit, the sufferings, and the sacrifices of a class of people who are seldom, if ever, individualized in history, yet who always bear the brunt of war and invasion. The hero of the piece, says Mr. Paulding, once actually existed; and exhibited in his youth many of the qualities here ascribed to him. Some of the incidents detailed were well remembered by the people of the neighborhood; few, if any, of whom are now living. Others took place in different parts of the country, at various times. It gives a very graphic picture of the price paid by our fathers and mothers for the freedom we enjoy. It is, on the whole, a very interesting and attractive volume, and well calculated to add to the already well-earned reputation of the author.

- 19.—*Thoughts on the Poets*. By H. T. TUCKERMAN. New York: C. S. Francis & Co.

Mr. Tuckerman has given us in this volume his "thoughts," and we may add, criticisms, on twenty-six poets; embracing Petrarch, Goldsmith, Gray, Collins, Pope, Cowper, Thompson, Young, Alfieri, Crabbe, Shelley, Hunt, Byron, Moore, Rogers, Burns, Campbell, Wordsworth, Coleridge, Keats, Barry Cornwall, Mrs. Hemans, Tennyson, Miss Barrett, Drake, and Bryant. These sketches are written in a chaste, classic, and graceful style, although not distinguished for a remarkable degree of vigor; and his thoughts are pure, pleasing, and poetical. Mr. T. is not, perhaps, so highly appreciated as a writer in this country as in England, where he will find a more numerous class of admirers. It forms one of Francis & Co.'s "Cabinet Library of Choice Prose and Poetry;" a series which, perhaps, more than any other, seems peculiarly adapted to the taste of intellectual women.

- 20.—*Elements of Drawing and Mensuration, applied to the Mechanic Arts; a Book for the Instruction and Use of Practical Men*. By CHARLES DAVIES, LL. D. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.

Dr. Davies is the author of a series of popular arithmetics, and elementary works on algebra, surveying, geometry, etc., which have been extensively introduced into many of our best schools, and other seminaries of learning. The design of the present work is to afford an elementary text-book of a practical character, adapted to the wants of the community; where, every day, new demands arise for the application of science to the useful arts. The present work will, we have no doubt, be as popular as the other educational works of the author.

- 21.—*Lilla Hart; a Tale of New York*. By CHARLES BURDETT, author of "The Adopted Child," "Chances and Changes," "Never too Late," Trials and Triumphs," etc. New York: Baker & Scribner.

Mr. Burdett is one of the reporters to the New York Courier and Enquirer, a situation "fraught with endless variety of scene and incident," scarcely paralleled by any other profession. A reporter witnesses many scenes, and comes in contact with every degree of horror, crime and suffering. This tale is founded on facts falling within the knowledge of the author, who gathers lessons of warning and instruction from all, and very happily weaves the incidents into this profitable and pleasing narrative. We are pleased to notice great improvement in the author's style.

22.—*Lives of the Apostles of Jesus Christ.* By D. FRANCIS BACON. New York: Baker & Scribner.

This is a large and handsome volume, of more than six hundred pages. Dr. Bacon, the author, is a gentleman of great versatility of talent; and has, we believe, studied medicine, divinity, and law, to say nothing of politics. He was some time Governor of Liberia, and wrote a very interesting work on Africa, only a part of which has been published. His attainments are extensive, and he has brought to the preparation of the present work no ordinary degree of erudition, besides a large experience. It is written in a pleasing, and at the same time vigorous style; and he seems to have availed himself of the most reliable and authentic sources of information. We can commend it, most heartily, to all who take an interest in that little band of reformers who rallied around the Light of the World, and whose influence on the destiny of the race must extend through all time—eternity.

23.—*Self-Formation: or, the History of an Individual Mind. Intended as a Guide for the Intellect through Difficulties to Success.* By a Fellow of a College. First American, from the London edition. Boston: William Crosby, and H. P. Nichols.

We agree with the American editor in his estimate of this work, that it is, almost without question, the most valuable and useful work upon the subject of self-education, that has yet appeared in our language. It is original, both in plan and execution, and meets the case, as no other among the numerous books which have appeared with a similar design, has succeeded in doing. It is just what the unaided searcher for intellectual elevation and progress wants, to give him impulse, aid, and encouragement, in the arduous, and often disheartening task of self-discipline. Written in unaffected style, and interspersed with illustrative anecdotes, divests it of that dullness which so frequently characterises the essay. It is published in the usually handsome style of the best Boston books.

24.—*My own Home and Fireside: being illustrative of the Speculations of Martin Chuzzlewit & Co. among the Women of the Valley of Eden.* By SYR. Philadelphia: John W. Moore.

The design of this narrative, as we are informed in the preface, is to show who were the companions of certain foreigners who have visited America and traduced it—to expose the cowardly and brutal practice of whipping in the navy—to show who are the desperadoes that drive the Indian from his hunting grounds without remuneration—to present the life of the seamstress, and their vile treatment by the principals in some establishments—and to illustrate how, from the most base and impure parentage, often springs an issue cultivated and virtuous—and that the good of life sometimes dwells in the most corrupt communities. These views are woven into quite a readable and agreeable narrative.

25.—*Family and Private Prayers.* By the Rev. WILLIAM BERRIAN, D. D., Rector of Trinity Church, New York. New York: Stanford & Swords.

This is a very handsome duodecimo volume of more than four hundred pages, printed on a large, bold type, a great desideratum for a work designed for "all ages and all eyes." As a manual of devotion for the family and closet, it is peculiarly suited to the taste and feelings of the devout churchman. The principal part of it is taken from the Book of Common Prayer, and the rest, which will appear new to many, is drawn from the offices for special occasions, in the liturgy of the Church of England. It embraces prayers for every day in the month, for all the fasts and feasts of the Church, and, in fact, for almost every event and circumstance in life.

26.—*Margaret: or, the Pearl.* By the Rev. CHARLES B. TAYLOR, M. A. New York: Stanford & Swords.

"Lady Mary," and "Records of a Good Man's Life," by the same author, are among the most popular religious narratives of the day, and their circulation among Episcopalians in England and in this country, is quite extensive. The present story is of the same class, with, perhaps, this exception, that it will be considered by some rather more sectarian in its character than the latter. "Tractarianism," which has risen up in the Church of England, the author considers one of the chief errors of the day, and it is the object of the present narrative to show "the effects of the system as regards our own private and domestic circles, and the interior of our homes." The story is embraced in a handsome duodecimo, of about two hundred and fifty pages.

27.—*The Philosophy of Reform; in which are exhibited the Design, Principle, and Plan of God, for the Full Development of Man, as a Social, Civil, Intellectual, and Moral Being; thereby elevating him in the Scale of Being to the Position he was created to occupy.* By Rev. C. BILLINGS SMITH. New York: Gates & Stedman.

We rejoice at every indication of reform, and it is particularly gratifying to note the movements made by the Church and its ministers, who have for centuries been too much disposed not only to hold fast that which is good, but also many evils and abuses. The author addresses himself to the Christian, the Scholar, and the Statesman; and enforces with considerable power the doctrine of the progress of the race. The aims of the author are good; and, from the fact that the essay is recommended by such men as the Rev. Dr. Skinner, the Rev. William R. Williams, and others of the same theological stamp, will find a class of readers different from that which usually advance similar views of man and society.

28.—*The Artists of America.* New York: Baker & Scribner.

We have, on a former occasion, expressed our approbation of the design and character of this enterprise. The present number embraces sketches of John Trumbull and James De Veaux.

29.—*Simmonds' Colonial Magazine and Foreign Miscellany*. Edited by P. L. SIMMONDS, F.S.S. London: Simmonds & Ward.

This most useful of the London Magazines has reached its twenty-eighth monthly issue. It is conducted with signal ability, and is devoted to the interests of the British Colonies, which "sweep the globe, and touch every shore." Every number is replete with information touching the geography, commerce, population, resources, and, in brief, all those elements that render the colonies so important to the mother country, and of so much interest to the commercial world. The April number (which is full of interesting matter) contains an article on the Oregon question, which, of course, takes the English view of the claim. That the claims of the two parties may be amicably adjusted, is the prayer of every friend of humanity in the civilized world. We should regret, exceedingly, to be deprived for a time of the intellectual feast our worthy collaborateur monthly spreads before us in the pages of his well-stored magazine.

30.—*Life of Julius Caesar*. New York: Leavitt, Trow & Co.

This is the first number of a "Monthly Series of Useful Reading," of a pure and elevated character. It includes nearly the whole of the first books of the Lives of the Cæsars, by Suetonius, and is more perfect and copious than Plutarch's life of this warrior. It is well remarked in the preface, that to those who condemn all war, shrinking from enemies as from fiends, the Life of Cæsar presents little more than a succession of murderous tragedies.

31.—*The Life and Remains of the Rev. Robert Housman, A. B., the Founder, and, for above Forty Years, the Incumbent Minister of St. Ann's, Lancaster, and formerly Curate to Rev. T. Robinson, M. A., of Leicester*. By ROBERT FLETCHER HOUSMAN, Esq. New York: Robert Carter.

This volume contains, as we are informed in the preface to it, "a somewhat extended memoir of the life and opinions of one, to whose faithful and long protracted ministry of the Gospel, unusually large measures of divine favor were awarded." It is printed and published in the uniformly correct and handsome style of Mr. Carter.

32.—*Wonderful Stories for Children*. By HANS CHRISTIAN ANDERSON, author of "The Improvisatore," etc. Translated from the Danish. By MARY HOWITT. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

Here are ten stories, amusing and instructive; and, as they have the endorsement of Mary Howitt, we may venture to recommend them to "little folks" without the reading.

33.—*Elizabeth Benton; or, Religion in Connection with Fashionable Life*. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This is one of a series of original social tales, designed to enforce, in an agreeable form, the serious obligations of moral life; and, like the series of re-prints by the Appletons, is intended for the people and their children.

BOOKS IN PAPER COVERS.

34.—*Rost-Marie; or the Gogo Family*. By CHARLES PAUL DE KOCK, author of "Andrew the Savoyard," etc. Translated from the French by Thomas Williams, Esq. New York: William Taylor & Co. [This is an elegant translation of a romance unlike most of the writer's, in that it is unexceptionable in its moral tone and tendency.]

35.—*Twenty Years After; or the Three Mousquetaires. A Sequel to the Three Guardsmen*. By ALEXANDER DUMAS. Translated from the French by E. P. New York: William Taylor & Co.

36.—*The Young Duke*. By the author of "Vivian Grey." 2 vols. in one. Harper's Pocket Edition of Select Novels, No. 15. Price 25 cents.

37.—*The Chevalier D'Kormental; or Love and Conspiracy*. Translated from the French of A. DUMAS. By P. F. CHRISTEN, and EUGENE SIES. Harper's Library of Select Novels, No. 77.

38.—*The Three Guardsmen*. By ALEXANDER DUMAS. Translated from the French by PARK GODWIN. Baltimore: Taylor, Wilde & Co.

39.—*Marguerite De Valois; an Historical Romance*. By ALEXANDER DUMAS. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

40.—*The History and Extraordinary Adventures of Margaret Catchpole, a Suffolk Girl*. By the Rev. RICHARD ARDOLD. First American, from the third English edition. With illustrations. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

41.—*Artists of America*. By C. EDWARDS LESTER. New York: Baker & Scribner. [No. 5 contains sketches of Rembrandt Peale and Thomas Crawford, with faithful portraits of each.]

PUBLIC DOCUMENTS.—We take this opportunity of expressing our gratitude to the Hon. William W. Campbell, Hon. D. S. Dickinson, and Hon. Charles S. Benton, of New York, Hon. Charles Hudson, Hon. R. C. Winthrop, of Massachusetts, Hon. George P. Marsh, of Vermont, Hon. George Bancroft, Secretary of the Navy, and the Hon. R. H. Gillet, Register of the Treasury, for valuable public documents sent us during the present session of Congress. The duplicates we receive, answer a useful purpose, as we send them to valued correspondents abroad, who furnish us with the official papers of the governments of Europe, in exchange.